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INDEX

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Vols. I. & II. *Page.*

Atlantic and Miss. Railroad, v. i. 21
Agriculture S. & West, v. i...73, 227
Agriculture of Louisiana, v. i... 75
" Society of Louisiana, v. i. 161
" Schools, v. i..... 456
" Life, v. ii..... 114
" Classes, v. ii..... 116
Agricultural products, U. S., v. ii. 117
Ancient Maritime Law, v. i..... 142
Alabama Finances, v. i..... 187
" " Commerce of, v. ii..... 402
Ambassadors, v. i..... 207
Armistice, v. i..... 215
Army in Mexico, v. ii..... 426
Alliances of States, v. i..... 216
Armory, Western, v. i..... 267
Artesian Wells, v. i..... 455
American Railroads, v. i..... 460
American Commerce, 17th century, v. ii..... 369
American Commerce to the Revolution, v. ii..... 370
American Commerce to 1790, v. ii. 374
" " to 1812, v. ii. 375
" " to 1846, v. ii. 381
" legislation, science, art, and agriculture, v. ii..... 75
Average, v. ii..... 17
Abandonment in Insurance, v. ii. 19
Art and Agriculture, v. ii..... 96
Arts, Useful and Fine, v. ii..... 99
Authors, Protection of, v. ii..... 95
Anastatic Printing, v. ii..... 111
Admiralty Courts, v. ii..... 179

Vol. III.

American Light Houses..... 86
Administration of John Adams.. 91
Acadians in Louisiana..... 120
Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, differences in Level of..... 126
Atlantic and Pacific Oceans Effect of a Canal between..... 127
American States..... 179
Alabama Minerals..... 275
" Geology of..... 316
Agriculture..... 355
Agriculture of Louisiana..... 412
Arkansas, Resources of..... 445
Atlantic and Pacific Railroad... 475
Agricultural Education..... 509
Alabama Manufactures..... 525

Vol. IV.

Alabama, Trade, Products, &c., of.....39, 57
" Minerals..... 404
Acadians in Louisiana..... 43

Page.

Arkansas, Commerce, Progress, &c., of.....59, 64
Agricultural Products of the West..... 69
Apparatus for Light-houses..... 150
Astronomy..... 181
Animal Creation..... 185
Avoyelles, Louisiana..... 263
Abolitionists..... 288
Alpaca Sheep..... 376
American Native Wines..... 310
American Government..... 379
" Lakes..... 386
" Cities..... 391
American Institute..... 422
Agricultural Society of S. C.... 420
" Works..... 444
" Societies..... 445
" Science..... 446
" Life.....448, 449
Agriculture, History of..... 440
" Ancient..... 441
Australia..... 406

Vol. V.

Abbey, R., letter on baling cotton with iron hoops..... 290
Affleck, Thomas—letter on Cherokee rose, etc 82
Agriculture, Hon. J. P. Benjamin's address on, 41: high state of, in Louisiana, 41; steam and cotton on sugar estates, 45; experiments with the steam plough, 46: chemistry in the manufacture of sugar, 47; beet sugar, 12 per cent. of juice, 48; process of preparing sugar from cane, 49: fluid of cane 90 per cent. of stem, 50; success of mills in extracting juice, 50; new process, patent, for obtaining saccharine matter, 50: filtration and boiling cane juice, 52, 53: Professor McCulloh's report on sugar manufacture, 53; mode of crystallizing sugar, 56; and manufacturers in south and west, 81; of France—estates, taxes and acres..... 393
Aime, M. Valcour—article on McCulloh's report..... 249
Alabama, railroads in..... 381
Antigua, exports from..... 477
Arkansas, sketches of towns and *soil, hot springs, &c...69, 229, 301*

Vol. VI. *Pag*

Araucania.....
Argentine Republic.....
Avequin's review of McCulloh's sugar.....
Alabama..... 2
Artesian Well, Charleston..... 1
Alabama, progress of..... 2
Army in Mexico..... 3
Arrival flatboats..... 4

Vol. VII.

American agriculture..... 1
Alabama, her rivers, &c..... 1
" canals and railroads..... 1
" productions..... 1
" lands, capital, &c..... 1
" timber, factories, colleges 1
" population, &c..... 1
Africa and its barbarism..... 2
Agriculture and manufactures compared..... 2
Agricultural life..... 2
African slave trade..... 2
Abolition of slavery..... 3
Amsterdam..... 3
Artesian Well..... 3
Arkansas minerals, &c..... 3
Alabama cotton crop.....411, 4
Alabama..... 4
Arkansas..... 4

Vol. VIII.

Agricultural societies.....
Arkansas mines..... 2
Attakapas sea coast.....
Alabama railroad enterprise.... 4

Vol. IX.

Alabama invaded by De Soto...
African trade and productions... 5
Alabama, what she is and may be, 2
Agriculture, interests of..... 1
Agricultural productions..... 3
African Sports..... 5
Alabama, mineral resources.... 3
" Factories..... 2

Vol. X.

Alabama, minerals of.....
" mineral waters.....
" Autaugaville factory.. 5
Animal charcoal.....
Arkansas minerals..... 346,
Abolitionists .....

Vols. I. & II. *Page.*

Baltimore, Trade of, v. i., 79; v. ii., 412
Bruges, trade of, v. i., 6
Baconian Philosophy, v. i. 132
Bills of Exchange, &c., v. i. 153, 533; v. ii. 64
Bills of Lading, v. i., 535 v. ii., 64
Buffalo, N. Y., v. i., 159
Baton Rouge Fair, v. i., 162
Banks of New-Orleans, v. i., 174
Bank Stocks, v. i., 373
" Notes and Specie, v. ii. 287
Banks in U. S., v. i., 287
Boston, Commerce of, v. i., 185, 483; v. ii., 409
Belligerents, Duties of, v. i. 216
Blockade, v. 226, 408
British Cotton Trade, v. i., 312
" Restrictive Policy, v. ii., 371
" Provinces, their trade, v. ii., 390
Burr's Plot, v. i., 407
Barratry, v. ii., 15
Barter, v. ii. 285
Balances of Trade, v. ii., 372
Barley Crop U. S., v. ii. 117
Buckwheat Crop, U. S., v. ii. 116
Bagging, Cotton and Hemp, v. ii. 140
Beef Inspection, v. ii. 360
Bathing, History and advantage of, v. ii. 228
Bullion, v. ii. 290
Berlin Decrees, v. ii. 379
Bread Stuffs, v. ii. 385
Book Table of Editor, v. ii. 443

Vol. III.

Bryant's Poems 91
Batture at New-Orleans 112
" in Third Municipality 113
" progressive increase and value 114
" ownership of 115
Baton Rouge 121
Bankrupt Laws, &c. 160
Boston 274
Balize, Louisiana 434
" Population and view of 437
British American Colonies 438
Banking System, U. S. 451
Branch Mints, U. S. 529

Vol. IV.

Boatmen of the West 50
Boone, Daniel, of Kentucky 51
Burr, Aaron 56
Breadstuffs, Trade in 89
Banks in United States and West 91
" Capital at South 221
" of England 331
British Commerce 91
" Light-houses 148
Boston, Railroads of 260
" History " 260
" Charities " 261
" Commerce " 261, 401
" Wealth " 261
Brazil, Commerce of 269
Brazoria, Texas 324
Buffalo, Commerce of 389
Baton Rouge Agricultural Society 423

Vol. V.

Balestier, J. (U. S. Consul at Singapore)—letter on cultivation of sugar in East Indies 384
Bank of England, statements of 80, 101, 103, 179
Banks of New-York, condition of 40, 197

Page.

Banks of the states, aggregate business of 173
Banks, savings, deposits with 517
Bahama, description of 482
Benjamin, Hon. J. P., address on agriculture 44
Benjamin, Hon. J. P.,—description of Solei's Saccharometer 357
Brashear W. letter difficulties of sugar culture 86
Bry R. M.—articles on Louisiana and Arkansas 69, 229
Britain, Great—dependencies of 475 and colonies of, 482 commercial prospects of 513
Bullard, Hon. H. A.—report on law faculty 236
Burke, G.—donation to University of Louisiana 240
Bermuda, staple productions of, in 1846 206
Bermuda, description of 482

Vol. VI.

Bolivia 3
Brazil 3
British America 181
Banking system of the United States and Europe 293
British colonial empire 310
Battles of the Revolution 58

Vol. VII.

Book notices 99
Breadstuffs, production of 151
Burr, his character and designs 196
British power on the lakes 287
Bible argument for slavery 294
Bills of exchange 356
Barnwell translation Girardin 377
Boston, commerce, etc. 556

Vol. VIII.

Bagasse for fuel 401

Vol. IX.

Baron Humboldt's Cosmos 150
" " " 271
Beautiful 50
British India Government 1, 129, 276
Bryant's Poems 577

Vol. X.

Book notices, 111, 112, 239, 369, 499, 599, 696
Banks in U. S. 199
Baltimore 452
British shipping, increase of 552
Breadstuffs and provisions, receipts of, N. Y. and N. Orleans 551

Vols. I. & II.

Commercial Review, Position, v. i. 9
Commerce jurisprudence, v. i. 72, 169
" of antiquity, v. i. 97
" history of, v. i. 98
" Great Britain, v. i. 105
" between the states, v. ii. 67
" American, its progress, v. ii 357
Commerce of Europe, v. 400
Convention S. and West, v. i. 67
Calhoun, Hon. J. C., at Memphis, v. i., 14; report on Memphis Memorial, v. ii. 23, 410
Charleston and Georgia Railroad, v. i. 22

Page.

Charleston trade of, vi. 45, 79; Chamber of Commerce, v. i., 449; rates, commissions, &c., at, v. i., 449; history of, v. ii., 130, 412; Commerce of, v. ii., 414
Corn Laws of Great Britain, v. i., 34; v. ii. 376
Corn exports U. S., from 1791, v. i. 473
" trade of New-Orleans, v. i. 488
Crops of grain U. S., v. i. 42
Consular System, v. 56
Consuls, American and Foreign, v. i. 57, 208
California, advantages, &c., of v. i. 65
" history and trade of, v. i. 65
Cotton, S. Carolina, report on, v. i., 73; imported into Europe, v. i., 74 consumption in Europe, v. i., 274; culture of, v. i., 230; v. ii., 122; over production, v. i., 231; crops of, v. i., 234; v. ii., 363, 387; consumption of, in U. S., v. i., 235; planter's convention, v. i., 237; trade of Great Britain, v. i. 283
Cotton Plant, history of, v. i., 291; introduction into Europe, v. i., 297 introduction into U. S., v. i., 299 first exportation U. S., v. i. 302 varieties of, v. i., 303; Sea Island, v. i., 304; crop of World, v. i., 307 mode of planting, v. ii., 133; seed, v. ii., 134, 279; implements of planting, v. ii., 135; bales iron bound, v. ii. 139
Cities, health of American, v. i. 81
" " Foreign, v. i. 82
Chinese Tariff, v. i., 89; cotton, v. i., 265; trade with U. S., v. ii. 395
Constitution U. S., v. ii. 77
" Louisiana, v. i. 95
Carthage, trade of, v. i. 101
Civilizing effects of Commerce, v. 114
Colonial law of Spain, v. i. 120
Cincinnati, trade, &c., of, v. i. 255, 155
Chicago, Ill., v. i. 158
Cleveland, Ohio, v. i. 159
Chamber of Commerce, N. O., 171, 173
Commissions on Produce, N. O., 171
Cuba, Custom-House, v. i. 180
" commerce of, v. i. 181
Conflict of Laws 204
Contracts under Law of Nations, v. i.
Confiscation in War, v. i. 211
Coasting trade in war, v. i. 218
Carrying trade in war, v. i. 221
Contraband, v. i. 224
Charges, steamers to, v. i. 251
Carolina, rice exports, v. i., 351; v. ii. 415
Copyright laws, v. i. 96
Canals, northern, v. i. 481
Corporations, v. i. 511
Crabgrass, v. ii. 137
Collisions of vessels, v. ii. 179
Coal trade, v. ii. 210
Caterpillar, nature, &c., of, v. ii 277, 351
Coins, weights and measures v. ii. 284
Commerce of the world, v. ii. 295
Coins, orient and western, v. ii. 299
Coffee and the coffee trade, v. ii. 303
" West India, v. ii 305
" trade of world, v. ii. 311
" consumed in U. S., v. ii. 315
Cod-fishery, U. S., v. ii. 376

Vol. III. *Page.*

Cotton, and cotton planters..... 1
" growing consumption.... 2
" powder..... 2
" prospects..... 2
" land, how cultivated.. 4, 445
" seed, varieties of..... 6
" " Mastodon..... 7
" preparation for market.. 10
" ginning and gins..... 11
" baling and packing..... 12
" presses..... 18
Creditors' rights in debtors' assigned property..... 63
Chamber of commerce, N. O.,... 83
" " tariff of charges, 1847..... 84
Commerce, resources, &c., of Ohio..... 129
Cœur, James, the merchant prince..... 136
Commerce of the world..... 170
" " U. S., 1846.... 171
" imports, exports, &c. 172
" duties..... 174
Consuls, American..... 175
Climate at south..... 182
Crystallization of sugar..... 230
Crescent City..... 235
Cemeteries, New-Orleans..... 242
Culture of sugar-cane..... 244
Commerce U. S., manufactures, &c..... 271
Commerce of the states..... 272
Coasting trade..... 273
Coal of Pennsylvania..... 273
Cotton, caterpillar, destruction of..... 346
Copper mines, Lake Superior... 341
Charleston, manufactures of.... 347
Cleveland, Ohio..... 349
Charleston, health of..... 367
" statistics of mortality 368
Columbia, Arkansas..... 410
Cotton trade, Great Britain..... 430
Cities, commerce of..... 440
Cotton crop, and statistics..... 443
Cork at south..... 464
Compost at south..... 465
Cow-pea..... 468
Cities..... 488
Commerce and agriculture in Universities..... 502
Commerce, resources of..... 505
Charleston, geography of..... 517
" defences of..... 518
" naval depot..... 519
" ship-building..... 521
" commercial advantages..... 523
" agricult'l resources 524
" climate and soil.... 525
" prospects and prospects..... 527
Commerce, progress of..... 532
Cotton world, its history..... 537
" character..... 538
" varieties..... 541
" theory of..... 542, 583
California..... 543
Cotton of the states..... 579
Cotton trade..... 581
" and..... 582
Charleston, progress of..... 584

Vol. IV.

Cincinnati mercantile Library... 19
" city of..... 27, 53
Commerce of the west..... 25, 83
" " New-York..... 335
" " American cities.. 402
" " New-Orleans..... 392
Commercial convention at south 397
" " delegates 338
" professorship..... 414

Page.

Cities in the west..... 26, 75
Cotton trade of New-Orleans... 394
" manufactures at South.. 256
" crops of U. S..... 336
" consumption, trade, &c. of the United States... 87
" culture of..... 250
" caterpillar..... 251
" planting in Ouachita.... 252
" crop, value of..... 253
" prices, &c..... 254
" gin..... 254
" analysis of..... 254
" East India..... 255
" Sea Island..... 255
" machinery..... 544
" baled with iron hoops... 558
China cotton..... 525
Cuba..... 549
Canada..... 546
Calhoun's Resolutions on Wilmot Proviso..... 555
Chicago convention..... 122, 291
Claims on the state..... 103
Creation and the Universe..... 191
Conventions, commercial, at south..... 212
Cypress swamps..... 229
Cane lands..... 229
" culture..... 235
Colorado River, Valley of..... 33
Conquest of Illinois..... 367
Corn meal, preparation of..... 239
Clarification of sugar..... 297
Crystals of sugar..... 305
Capital in trade..... 312, 350
" and credit, influence of.. 351
Charleston and Hamburg Railroad..... 354
" commerce of..... 402
Civil law..... 357
" " 486
Custom-house, New-Orleans.... 379
Cuba sugars..... 385
Coffee trade of New-Orleans.... 400
Culture of sugar in Indies..... 511
" " cotton " " 511

Vol. V.

Canal in the valley of Mexico... 403
Chemistry an agent in the manufacture of sugar..... 47
Cherokee rose, growth of, for hedging in South..... 85, 175
Chicago, statistics and prospects of..... 372
Chillicothe, trade of, in 1847.... 376
Cincinnati, exports of four years 376
Coast survey, report on, by Prof. Bache..... 323
Coconeries, arrangement of.... 311
Cocoons, when healthy..... 433
Commerce and statistics—chair of, in University of Louisiana, 240; subjects and library, 241-2; of U. States for 1847, 75; of lakes and western rivers 377
Copper, production of, on Lake Superior..... 362
Corn, Indian, use of, for food in Great Britain, 291; depth of planting..... 366
Cousin, Victor, philosophy of, reviewed..... 58, 127, 211, 346
Cotton—price of in New-York, 1847, 81; crop several years, 103; exports of from East Indies, 167; stock and consumption of in Great Britain, 16 years, 170; price of in Liverpool, 1846-7, 170; estimated crop of the world for 1847-8, 170; manufactures, value of, spindles, &c., 186; mills in

Page

Manchester, England, 199; prices of, in New-York & Liverpool, 1847, 202; baled with iron hoops, 290; population engaged in producing, 369; capital employed, and profits. 37
Cradle, Gill's patent ventilating. 42
Cuba, imports and exports..... 46
Currency, chronological history of..... 49

Vol. VI.

Chili.....
Colombia.....
Central America..... 8
Commerce, chair of, in University..... 11
Cotton trade and manufacture, foreign cottons, &c..... 12
Canada, Upper and Lower..... 18
California..... 20
Carolina, North and South..... 28
Colonies of Great Britain..... 31
Commerce of the states..... 13
Cotton statistics..... 14
Cotton plantation of McDuffie.. 14
Chemistry of agriculture..... 14
Coffee..... 152, 45
Charleston, S. C., health of..... 22
Cotton interests, ...363, 44
Canada, population of..... 36
Commerce of New-York..... 45
Charleston, S. C.—statistics taxable..... 43
Cotton—comparative receipts... 43
Cincinnati—position—commerce 43
Comparative receipts of produce, New-York and New-Orleans..... 45

Vol. VII.

Canals across the Isthmus..... 1
Cotton, how to control its price 4
" profits of planter and manufacturer..... 52, 17
" remunerating prices.... 7
" crop, 1848..... 95, 9
Cannelton, Indiana..... 13
Charleston, trade of..... 15
Canada..... 16
Cotton manufactory, investment in..... 17
" machinery, cost of..... 17
Commercial college at New-Orleans..... 18
Cattle of Kentucky..... 19
Commercial age, the..... 22
" professorship in Louisiana..... 23
Commerce, history in all ages .. 23
" early English..... 23
" American..... 23
" its influences..... 23
" empire of..... 23
Coal of Europe and United States..... 25
City life and country life..... 26
Cities, influence of..... 2
Carolina slave laws..... 27
Canals, western..... 2
Champlain lake..... 2
Cities, mortality of, &c..... 3
Crime at the north and south... 3
Civilization, modern..... 3
Charleston..... 3
" gas-works..... 3
" magnetic telegraph... 3
" Mechanics' Institute. 3
Cotton manufactures..... 3
" " history of in U. S..... 3
" " statistics of 3
Cincinnati, her position, duty and destiny.....

Page.
Coal trade of Pennsylvania..... 366
Commerce of Philadelphia 367
Corn and corn meal exports.... 369
Cotton manufactures at the South 370
Charleston factories..... 398
" battery..... 399
" fortifications..... 399
" rail-road and steamboats..... 400
" improvements 401
Cotton planters' duty..... 410
" crop, 1849..... 420
Coffee trade, New-Orleans..... 434
Cotton, cost of production..... 435
" in Carolina..... 435
" in Alabama..... 436
" profits of planters..... 437
" analysis of plant, &c.... 439
Cannelton, Indiana..... 454
Cotton factories, statistics of southern..... 456
Connecticut, early history..... 469
Carolina 469
Cuba and the Cuba question.... 538
Cuba, resources of. 541
Canadas, resources of,..... 542
Cincinnati trade and statistics.. 552
Charleston and Savannah..... 558
Common carriers..... 560
Cotton crop of 1848-9..... 565

Vol. VIII.

Cotton—production in British empire..... 20
" true policy of Britain... 20
" production and manufacture of..... 99
" demand and supply....57, 65
" new variety 69
" trade 1850, prospects, 150, 267
Charleston and Savannah..... 243
Cuba, its position, dimensions and population, territorial limits, statistics various classes population..... 313
Census of U. S. from 1790 to 1820.....214, 524
California, the new El Dorado... 538
Cotton, English views of..... 270
" supply and demand, British and French trade.. 383
" British prospects of supply, &c... 396
Commerce—trade of Great Britain..... .....76, 167
" fluctuations of..... 78
" reciprocal treaties.... 79
" of Baltimore..... 81
" writers upon..... 85
" of Charleston.....153, 281
" insurance rates on western rivers..... 161
" coal trade of Ohio..... 163
" trade and navigation in northern Germany 164
" statistics of..... 166
" taxation in Europe ... 167
" of United States, 1848. 277
" of New Orleans..... 281
" St Louis..... 361
" Boston..... 380
" Coffee trade..... 381
" statistics and finances of North and South.. 382
Census of 1850, letters on...194, 291
Cotton..... 567
Charleston..... 4[illegible]
Canals of N. Y..... 453
Cincinnati, lard business of..... 91
Culture of tea in South Corolina, 560
Cotton and cotton manufacture at the South.....462, 556
Commerce of France..... 489

Vol. IX. Page

Central America, ruins of..... 44
Cuba, the lake expedition..... 164
Canada, annexation to U. States 397
Currency and banking..... 413
Character, insurance of..... 492
Commerce of the Red Sea..... 132
" Early and growing, of the U. States.... 317
" and trade of Hamburg, Germany... 96
" and resources of the south..... 98
" of Rio Janeiro..... 101
" of the south, as influenced by the Gulf Stream..... 439
" prospective with Japan 441
" of the U. States..... 216
Commercial summary and review..... 292
Charleston, improvements, &c.. 307
Calhoun, Hon. J. C., death..... 236
Claret, Texas 238
Census, 1850..... 249
California gold..... 246
Cotton statement..... 457
" consumed at home..... 457
" London Times and American monopoly..... 105
" successful planting in poor lands..... 106
" how packed..... 107
" production in 1850..... 267
" consumption..... 211, 562
" culture in British India.. 314
" blooms, frost, crop..... 323
" statistics..... 565
Charleston trade... 312
Cincinnati..... 652
Coffee trade..... ..... 100, 343
China, trade of..... 441
Colman's granite flour mills..... 215
Cotton factories in the west..... 327
Charleston cotton mills 328
Ceylon, cotton growing facilities in 654

Vol. X.

Cotton, its cost of production... 568
Coal of Alabama..... 73
" " U. S. 75
Commerce, Union & South, 194, 292, 224
Cotton statistics &c., 193, 321, 334, 335
" for thirty years..... 207
" India..... .....455, 669
" cultivation..... 457
Cotton trade, U. S. 559
Cotton crop, estimate of.... 567, 607
" seed, varieties of 567
Charleston commerce. 314, 462, 558
Crevasses..... 224
Cliosophic society, Charleston, address 297
Commerce of Turkey..... 399
California 453
Colleges at South..... 476
Cuba, commerce of..... 553
Cincinnati, contest of, with Atlantic cities..... 555
Conner, Henry W., Bog. 578
Cotton manufactures in England, 629
Commerce of Brazos, Texas.... 684

Vols. I. & II.

Discovery of the Mississippi v. i. 51
Debts of the States, v. i..... 82
" to alien enemies, v. i..... 212
Detroit, v. ii..... 158
Dahlonega mint, v. i..... 196
Domicile in war, v. i..... 217
Duelling in Louisiana, v. i..... 427
Distilleries, v. i..... 479

Page.
Divorce in Louisiana, v. ii..... 135
Drainage sugar lands, v. ii..... 328
Denmark, our trade with, v. ii.. 395
Delta of the Mississippi, v. ii.... 434

Vol. III.

Drainage..... 66
" why important..... 66
Draining, results in Europe..... 67
" machines. 68
" wind engines..... 69
" modes of... 72
" machinery for..... 73
Dutch in Louisiana..... 120
De Medicis..... 136
Drainage in agriculture..... 259
" effect on health..... 341
Disasters at sea, 1846..... 441
Delta of Alabama..... 469

Vol. IV.

Dignity of Commerce..... 20
Discovery of America..... 113
Domestic institutions of South.. 117
Direct trade south with Europe. 208
Dismal swamp canal..... 257
Ditching cane lands..... 231

Vol. V.

Derby, Wm.—letter to Hon. J. C. Calhoun on Mississippi Valley 191
Deer hunting—natural history and habits of the deer, methods of hunting, &c., in Louisiana..... 228
Delavigne, J. C.—article on sugar 135
Dominica, description of..... 479
Duke, J. S.—article on the post system, 152; on the Zoll Verein 257

Vol. VI.

Debt of the U. States since 1791. 365

Vol VII.

Drugs, adulteration of..... 83
Delta of the Mississippi..... 105
Discoveries of the Mississippi.. 319
Dykes and levees of Holland and Louisiana..... 322
Dutch enterprise..... 325
De Kalb factory, S. C..... 370

Vol. IX.

Draining and subsoiling..... 322
Domestic manufactures..... 559

Vol. X.

Diseases of the valley, by Drake, 233

Vols. I. & II.

Education in New-Orleans, v. i. 83
" popular errors in, v. ii 528
Exploring expedition, v. i..... 96
East India cotton, v. i..... 318
Egyptian cotton, v. i..... 314
Exchanges, ancient, v. ii..... 284
Enemies' property insured, v. ii. 10
Enterprise South, v. ii..... 127
Expedition from St. Denis to Mexico, v. ii..... 215
Evaporation sugar pans, v. ii... 341
Embargo, v. ii..... 380
Editor's note, v. i., 288, 384, 545; ii. 219, 282, 366

Vol III.

Estes on slavery..... 183
Editor's note..... 278
Emigrants to U. S..... 351
England's colonies..... 437

Vol. IV. *Page.*

Europe on discovery of America ... 111
Exports, grain U. S. to Europe, 161, 163
Emancipation of slaves ... 258
England, provision supplies ... 330
" exports and imports ... 331
" currency and commerce ... 332
" cotton and sugar fields 405
Expenditures U. S. ... 382
Education at south ... 439
East India sugar and cotton, 511, 516
" " sugar soils ... 519
" " " history ... 513
Exchanges, rates of ... 333
Editor's note ... 418, 560

Vol. V.

Emancipation, effects of ... 489
England—commercial embarrassments in, 80; bank of, 89, 101, 103, 179; rental and value of property in, 167; literature of, 307, rates of exchange on, 325; failures in, 575; money crisis in ... 530
Estates, West Indies, depreciation in value ... 495
Essay writing, history of ... 303

Vol. VI.

Ecuador ... 3
East India trade ... 204
Editor's notes, 89, 235, 162, 378, 458
Exports, New-Orleans, year ending June 30, 1848 ... 451
Export—sugar and molasses ... 436
Export—flour, &c. ... 437
Exchange rates ... 412

Vol. VII.

Editorial notes, &c. ... 100, 182
Emancipation, &c., of slavery ... 217
Erie, lake, commerce of ... 282
Everglades of Florida ... 297
Education at the N. and South ... 311
Emancipation in West Indies ... 314
Education for practical life ... 317
Exchange, basis of ... 356
Editorial notes, &c. ... 569

Vol. VIII.

Editorial notices of books, &c. ... 96, 206, 311, 406, 500, 511
Exports from Philadelphia ... 489

Vol. IX.

Early spirit of the west ... 142
Exports of Liverpool ... 193
" of Great Britain ... 215
" of cotton in 1853 ... 233
" " from Charleston ... 312
" of rice " " ... 313
Exports and imports, 1849 ... 512
Exchange—fall of gold ... 34
Exports of Cincinnati ... 652
Exports, cotton, from Mobile ... 659

Vol. X.

Earth and man ... 283
Education at South ... 362
Edinburgh Review and Southern states ... 512

Vols. I. & II.

French edition Review, v. ii. ...
Flour export and imports England, 100 years, v. i. ... 35
Flour prices during 20 years, v. i. 44

Page.

Flour exports of U. S., since 1796, v. i ... 469
Foreign commerce, v. i. ... 86
Foreign products exported from U. S., v. ii. ... 408, 413
Flanders, v. i. ... 106
Fruit in Louisiana, v. i. ... 163
Fine arts of antiquity, v. i. ... 270
Farming interests, v. i. ... 468
Forest, western, v. i. ... 252
" " products of, v. ii. 383
Free trade, v. ii. ... 92
Fur trade, v. ii. ... 383
Flax and hemp, v. ii. ... 118
France, trade with, v. ii. ... 392

Vol. III.

Farmers' library ... 90
Flat-boat commerce of N. O. ... 240
Flour, prices of ... 341
Flax at South ... 466

Vol. IV.

Florida, products, trade, &c., of 38, 244
" climate of ... 217
" sugar ... 248
" S. I. Cotton ... 249
French in Valley of Mississippi. 39
Foreign light-houses ... 149
Flour exports ... 160
Fires and firemen ... 199
" great ones ... 203
" statistics of ... 205
" department of ... 204
" losses by in world ... 207
Fame of Indian corn ... 237
Final causes ... 189
Filters of sugar ... 299
" Domont's and Peyron's . 301
Foreign trade of south and north 343, 345
Foreign trade of New-Orleans ... 391
Freights at New-Orleans ... 397
Flax, manufacture of ... 412
Fields for American commerce ... 475
Forests ... 499
Facts in the cotton manufacture 543
Falls of Niagara ... 549
Fur trade ... 551

Vol. V.

Fairbanks, E. R.—article on Florida ... 9
Farrar, C. C. S.—articles on the science of history, 58, 127, 241, 346
Fisk, Alvarez—letter on public library in New-Orleans ... 242
Filatures, necessity of state, and nurseries ... 431
Florida, settlement of, 9; ceded to Great Britain, 1763, 10; receded to Spain, 1783, 11; ceded to U. States, 1821, 10; Seminole war in, 1835 to 1842, 11; quality of soil, timber, &c., 11, productions of, 13; sugar region of ... 367
Flour, manufacture of in Rochester, New York, 105; trade in Boston, 105; trade in Philadelphia ... 105
France, agriculture of, statistics, &c., 390; qualities and rent of land in, 397; productions of farms in ... 398

Vol. VI.

Florida ... 285
Freights in the West ... 63
France, population of ... 73
Freights ... 415
Flour and corn ... 446

Vol. VII. *Page.*

Florida, coasts and keys ... 96
Flour, analysis of, &c. ... 156
Frankfort, Kentucky ... 203
Factory, operatives ... 224
Fisherman story ... 274
Florida ... 297
" everglades ... 298
" history ... 299
" products ... 301
" fisheries ... 303
" coasts and wrecks ... 304
Factories of the North ... 307
Free and slave territory ... 313
Flour exports, 1840-'48 ... 369
Florida ... 476

Vol. IX.

Fugitive slaves ... 557
Fisheries, American whale and seal ... 545
Fencing ... 208

Vol. X

Fisk library ... 235
Fencing ... 335
Florida, arrow-root ... 326
Florida resources, &c. ... 404
Festus ... 430
Fruit culture in the South ... 672
" growing in the South ... 674

Vols. I. & II.

Grain market, home and foreign, v. i., 33; product U. S., v. i., 39; countries of Europe, v. i, 40; exports north of Europe, v. i., 40; exports and imports, U. S., v. i ... 43
Gulf of Mexico, its defenses, v. i., 75, 279
Grecian commerce, v. i. ... 100
Genoa and Pisa, v. i. ... 103
Georgia Rail-road, v. i. ... 278
Georgia, commerce of, v. ii. ... 402
Gallery of fine arts, v. i. ... 287
Great Britain, commerce with, v. i. ... 389
Gin stands, v. ii. ... 138
" cotton ... 153
Geology, western, v. ii. ... 213

Vol. III.

Geology of Miss. Valley ... 124, 215
Gayarre's Louisiana ... 183
Galveston, Texas ... 348
Galena, Illinois ... 446

Vol. IV.

Girard, Stephen ... 128
Grain and flour trade ... 159
" crops of U. S. ... 162
Galveston, Texas ... 403
Geology, results of ... 187
Government, functions of ... 95
" and trade ... 341

Vol. V.

Georgia, resources of—manufactures, &c., 189; rail-roads in 386
Germany, condition of ... 535
Goodman, W.—letter on Holly Springs and Memphis rail-road 87
Grapes, raising of, a simple and successful business, 27; foreign, not profitable for wine making in U. S., 27; Madeira and Scuppernong, 28; roots to be had at Brinkleyville, N. C. 29
Great Britain—amount expended for foreign supplies, 293; taxes of 1847-8, 294; consumption of cotton by, three years, 295; value and exports of manufactures ... 2

Page.
Grenada, description of..... 479
Guiana, description of..... 480
Gulf Stream, observations on, by Lieut. Maury..... 64

Vol. VI.

Grenada..... 3
Georgia..... 285
Galveston rail-road..... 73
Grain trade, American 143, 147
Grain trade, foreign powers..... 144
Grace, days of.....155, 242

Vol. VII.

Greenhow's history Louisiana... 330
Georgia railroads..... 335
Grace on bills exchange..... 356
Georgia factories..... 451
Georgia..... 469
Gulf of Mexico, its commercial advantages..... 510
Great Britain, railways of..... 523

Vol. VIII.

Georgia, her resources..... 39
" population, internal improvements, products, minerals, manufactures, &c..... 39

Vol. IX.

Government, thoughts on..... 257
Great cities, progress of..... 529
Grapes, production of in the U. States..... 205
Granite, southern..... 115
Gold, California..... 233
" Pen..... 332
Growth of cities..... 436
Gallery of industry and enterprise..... 671

Vol. X.

Georgia, resources, &c., of, 65, 243, 376
" topography..... 79
" springs..... 357
Granite at South..... 91
Gregg, Wm., biography..... 348
Great Britain, cotton spindles in 561

Vols. I. & II.

Health of New-Orleans, v. i., 322; ii., 72; southern and western cities, ... 81
Hospitals, marine, in West, v. i. 81
Hanseatic league v. i..... 101
Havana, commerce of, v. i..... 182
Humburgiana, v. i..... 441
Han T ns, trade with, v. ii.. 398
Home market, ... 477
ndustry, v. ii..... 90
Hayti, trade with, v. ii..... 399
Hay crop, S., v. ii 118
Historical socie Louisiana, v. i. 361

Vol. III.

Heinneccius' civil law..... 309
Historical societies..... 353

Vol. IV.

Hennepin's description of the west..... 197
Hasty pudding 24
Harvests of England..... 32
Hayne, Robert Y., his report on southern commerce 339
Health of southern cities. ... 349
Hemp in western states 399
Hunters and trappers of the west..... 551
Harbors and rivers, President's veto of bill to improve..... 89

Vol. V. Page.
Hawks, Rev. Dr. F. L.—report President of the University of Louisiana. 236
Heat, proposed substitute for... 429
History, science of, essay on, by C. C. F. Farrar. 58, 127, 211, 366
Honduras, description of 480
Huntington, Hon E. M.—article on the lower Ohio..... 13

Vol. VI.

Husbandry, implements of..... 131
Hides..... 0
Hogs slaughtered in the U. States 66
Health of southern cities..... 236
Health statistics of the U. States, 236
Houston, Texas..... 230
Hemp..... 453

Vol. VII.

Hammond's letters on slavery... 289
History of Louisiana, &c..... 320
Holland, inundations of, &c..... 322
Hydraulics of Holland..... 331
Hemp crops..... 433
Home manufactures..... 454
Hammond's letters on slavery... 490

Vol. VIII.

Home industry..... 249

Vol. IX.

Hog killing in the west..... 427
Home factories..... 561

Vol. X.

Harpers' Memoir on Slavery.... 47
Human race considered..... 113

Vols. I. & II.

International law, v. ii..... 201
Interest calculations, v. i. 370
Indian corn v. 455
Indiana, v. i.. 514
Indians of Mexico, ii. 166
Internal improvement, v. ii. 81
Inventions of America, v. ii..... 109
Insurance, v. ii..... 4
Italy, v. ii..... 396

Vol. III.

Indigo in Louisiana 120
Internal improvement convention 271
Indian Mounds, Louisiana..... 351
Indigo 417
Internal improvements..... 417
India trade 433
passage to 434
Isthmus of Panama 497
Indians, origin of 565

Vol. IV.

Improved sugar manufacture... 384
Industrial pursuits..... 19
Imports, grain into Britain..... 327
Iowa, progress, &c., of..... 59, 66
Illinois and Indiana, progress of 65
" " " " 366, 45
Importance of northern lakes... 399
Insolvent laws of Louisiana..... 166
Influences of commerce..... 119
Iron and rail-roads in Tennessee 4
Indian corn exports..... 16
" " analysis..... 238
Intercommunication between the Atlantic and Pacific..... 164
Internal improvements.....261, 292
" " at south 353
Ireland, statistics of..... 269
India sugars and cotton..... 511

Page.
Inventions for cotton manufactures..... 546
Insects destructive to sugar..... 524

Vol. V.

Ice, exports of from Boston, 105; New-Orleans greatest commerce of 105
Illinois, coal fields in..... 108
Immigration, foreign, into United States fifty years..... 246
Indians, policy of U. States toward..... 272
Indians, East—exports of cotton from, fifty years, 167; price of cotton from, in Liverpool, 169 production of sugar in, 384 cost of labor in..... 384
Indies, West—banks in, 166; geographical and political importance of, 455; emancipation in..... 487
Iowa, geological exploration of, 107
Ireland, public works increased for relief..... 293
Islands, Spanish..... 461

Vol. VI.

Indians, American..... 100, 60
Illinois 285
Indiana 295
Iowa..... 285
Insurance, rates..... 63
Italy 152
Indigo 152
Isthmus of Panama, passage of. 154
asane of the United States.... 234
Imports, specie..... 445
Imports, foreign merchandise.... 446

Vol. VII.

India, trade and population of.. 7
Inundations of the Mississippi.. 106
Interest laws..... 124
Indiana, resources and prospects 246
" emigration to..... 247
" lands of..... 247
" productions 248
" internal improvements. 249
" mineral resources 251
" timber 255
" wool, hemp, &c 258
" manufacturing facilities, 259
Internal improvement..... 268
" " in the west, 403
Indian corn, history, culture, uses, &c., of..... 440
Iron furnaces in the west..... 455
Indiana..... 474
Illinois 475
Interest laws..... 501

Vol. VIII.

Improvements in sugar making. 493
Importations in U. S..... 578
Indigo..... 495

Vol. IX.

Iron manufactures in Tennessee 33

Vol. X.

India and the Hindoos 269

Vols. I. & II.

Jews, commerce of, v. i..... 98
Jettison, v. ii..... 17

Vol. III.

Jesuit missions 90
Japan..... 487

Vol. IV.

Japan..... 484
" agriculture and trade of... 485

VOL. V. Page.

Jamaica, description of..... 483

VOL. IX.

Jamaica, production of cotton in, 665

VOL. X.

Jefferson, La., live stock, trade of..... 554

VOL. III.

Key West..... 275

VOL. IV.

Kentucky, progress, &c., of..... 64

VOL. V.

Kettell, T. P.—article on New-York..... 30
Kentucky, silk culture in..... 437

VOL. VI.

Kentucky..... 285

VOL. VII.

Kentucky, ancient fame of..... 191
" soil and minerals..... 192
" early manners in..... 193
" political history of... 194
" population, resources, &c., of..... 198
" agriculture and stock, 199
" education and slavery 205
Key-West, Florida..... 300
Kentucky..... 470

VOL. X.

Kentucky..... 571

VOLS. I. & II.

Law in Louisiana, v. i., 12: merchant, v. i., 141: of nations, v. i..... 196
Law, John, the financier, v. i. ... 393
Louisiana sugar, v. i., 53: histories of, v. i., 387: discovery and settlement, v. i., 390; western company, v. i., 393: French government of, v. i., 394; Spanish government of, v. i., 395: intrigues for, v. i., 399: ceded to U. S., v. i., 402; territorial government, v. i., 406: civil code of 1808, v. i., 408; advances of, v. i., 410; civil code of 1825, v. i., 411; code of practice, v. i., 412; doctrine of codes, v. i., 415: judiciary of, v. i., 417: new constitution, v. i., 420; antiquities of, v. i., 238: colonial records, v. i., 256, 439, 519: law, v. i., 374: historical society, v. ii., .. 1
Lake defences and commerce, v. i..... 80
" navigation, v. i..... 81, 160
Lafayette, city of, v. ii..... 423
Louisville, Ken., v. i..... 151
Lands, public, of U. S., v. i..... 168
Libraries in New-Orleans, v. i., 382: ii..... 350
Lombards, v. ii., ... 6, 360
Levee at New-Orleans, v. i..... 56
Legislation, American, vii..... 76
Lyell, Prof, lecture on Mississippi, v. ii..... 439

VOL. III.

Louisiana, researches..... 20
" historical societies.... 22
" general history of..... 23

Page.

Louisiana under Spain & France 30
" jurisprudence..... 32
" religion..... 35
" Indian tribes..... 35
" the Natchez..... 37
Louisiana..... 279
" cession of 1763 to Spain 283
" under the Spaniards.... 287
" early commerce..... 293
Levee at New-Orleans, trade... 103
Louisiana historical documents.. 181
" agriculture and manuf. 181
Lafayette City, Louisiana..... 277
Life insurance at South 357
" history of..... 359
Life tables..... 363
Longevity at South 364

VOL. IV.

Law, John..... 195
Louisiana, exports, commerce, &c..... 61
Legislation, partial..... 101
Light-houses..... 147
Lawrence, Abbot, endowment... 139
Lands, public, of U. S 86
" " of England..... 328
" " office, N. O..... 380
" " in U. S..... 380
Lafayette, Louisiana..... 262
Life Insurance of slaves..... 275
" value and statistics of..... 468
Lakes of U. S..... 386
" commerce of..... 387
" steam on..... 387
Lowell, Mass., statistics of..... 474
Lime, action of, on sugar..... 298
Lakes of North America..... 548
Levee of New-Orleans..... 555
Libraries in the United States.. 560

VOL. V.

Lakes, commerce of, and western rivers..... 377
Land, average cultivated per hand in U. S..... 369
Lands, public, acquired by treaty, 15; cession by Georgia to U. S. in 1802, 15; French and other claims, west, 17: conflicting grants adjusted, 21, 23; speculators in, combined to defraud government 21
Lieber, Prof.—ode on ship canal, Atlantic to Pacific..... 388
Louisiana—treaty of Paris securing rights in, 23; act of Congress, 1804, creating two territories in, 24; provision for titles of inhabitants, 23, 25: acts of Congress respecting land claims in, 111, 116: official reports on contested claims, 122, 127: revision of the laws of, 95: sketches of character in, 107: profits of slavery in, compared with Virginia, 188; deer hunting in, 228: university of, 235: cultivation of vineyards in, 280; sugar making in,—Rellieux's apparatus, &c., 285: silk culture in..... 441

VOL. VI.

Lands, public..... 92
Louisiana..... 285
Leather and tanning..... 60
Light of other days..... 236

VOL. VII.

Lumber trade, Charleston..... 93
Levee and banks of the Miss.... 107

Page.

Lowell manufactories..... 131
Lakes, commerce of..... 172
Lexington, Kentucky..... 203
Louisville, " 204
Labor in English factories..... 223
Louisiana Historical Society.... 278
Lake and valley trade..... 279
Lakes, exports and imports and tonnage..... 280
Literature at the N. and South. 312
Levees of Holland and Louisiana 322
Late publications..... 465
Louisiana, purchase of, &c..... 473
Lead ore in Arkansas..... 549

VOL. VIII.

Louisiana and her industry..... 32
" agricultural products, 32
" sugar and cotton limits 32
" meteorology..... 32
" profits sugar culture. 32
" rice, indigo, silk, transportation..... 32
" levees..... 101
" geology and hydrography..... 495
Land cultivated in U. States.... 157
Levees of Louisiana..... 485

VOL. IX.

Louisiana historical collections. 286
Little red-head 476
Lyrics of the Palmetto..... 676
Liberia..... 103

VOL. X.

Louisiana minerals 478
" public lands & levees. 529
Lake commerce of U. S..... 687
Le Baron, Chas., biog 694

VOLS. I. & II.

Memphis convention, object of, v. i..... 8, 146, 382
Memphis, observations on, v. i... 26
Mississippi river, v. i..... 51
" state finances, v. i... 187
Molasses products, v. i..... 75
Marine of Great Britain, v. i.... 92
" France and U. S., v. i. 92
" Ordinance of, v. i..... 144
" Insurance, v. ii..... 1
Maritime laws, v. i..... 141
Middle ages, trade of, v. i..... 102
" " v. ii..... 99
Monopolies of Queen Elizabeth, v. i..... 106
Manufactures of England, v. i.. 108
" of S. & West, v. i. 227
" Cincinnati, v. i.... 257
" St. Louis, v. i..... 258
Mexico, geography of, v. i..... 117
" early civilization of, v. i. 118
" government of, v. i..... 118
" clergy of, v. i..... 121
" mines and soil, v. i., 122, v. ii..... 230
" war with, v. ii..... 21, 164
" routes to, v. ii..... 173
" trade with, v. ii..... 398
Magnetic telegraph, v. i..... 132
Michigan city, v. i..... 158
Mechanics of Louisiana, v. i..... 161
Mastodon cotton, v. i., 188, v. ii. 141
Municipality, No. 2, N. O., v. i.. 174
Maryland, finances of, v. i..... 187
" commerce of, v. ii..... 402
Ministers, foreign, v. i..... 207
Marque and Reprisal, v. i..... 214
Military resources, south and west, v. i..... 251
Military system of ancients, v. ii. 426
Mining, v. i..... 252
Mobile bay, v. i..... 267

Pages.
Mobile, commerce of, v. ii..... 419
Mercantile integrity, v. i..... 381
Merchants' duties, v. ii..... 123
Machinery, influences of, v. ii.... 103
" labor saving, v. ii.... 103
Musical imstruments, v. ii..... 111
Marriage contract, v. ii..... 161, 239
Mortgage, v. ii..... 201
Money, history of, v. ii..... 289
" material of, v. ii..... 285
" theory of, v. ii..... 287
Mint, British and American, v. ii. 293
Massachusetts commerce, v. ii... 402
Milan decrees, v. ii..... 379
Moral advance, N. Orleans, v. ii. 343

Vol. III.

Merchant, his character..... 94
" duties..... 95
" how estimated..... 95
" American..... 96
" Southern..... 97
Mississippi River of old..... 115
" " approaches.... 116
" " passes..... 117
" " settlements.... 118
" " its romance... 235
Mississippi Basin..... 352
Mississippi, mouths of..... 430
" changes at mouth... 431
Mississippi River..... 423
Mississippi Valley, population.. 424
" " products.... 425
" " distances on, 427
Mercantile Biography..... 134
Manchester rail-road..... 139
Manufactures South and West.. 187
" how advantageous, 188
" compared with agriculture..... 190
Manufactures prevent emigration 192
Manufactures on plantations.... 204
" markets for..... 206
" encouragement or protection of..... 209
Mississippi Valley, geological changes..... 224
Mobile..... 88
Mobile Bay..... 317
Mobile and Ohio rail-road..... 328
Mobile, its position and prospects 332
Mobile, health of..... 373
Minerals of South Carolina..... 343
Mint at New-Orleans..... 347
Mutual Insurance Companies... 360
Molasses, product..... 382
Monroe, Louisiana..... 408
Mexico and United States..... 411
Maize in Louisiana..... 415
Madder..... 417
Missouri river..... 427
Merchants' Exchange, Cincinnati 446
Mercantile professorship..... 512
" studies..... 513
" library catalogue..... 515
Mexican agriculture..... 440
" tariff for..... 440
Mexican Gulf rail-road..... 561

Vol. IV.

Merchant, character..... 29
Mississippi Valley, extent of.... 37
" scheme..... 194
Missouri, progress, &c., of..... 65
Michigan, progress, &c., of..... 66
Mobile..... 121
Memphis Convention..... 122
McDuffie on southern commerce, 215
Manures for cane..... 233
Maize, history of..... 240
Massachusetts and the west..... 258
" *energies of*..... 459
" *school system*..... 460

Pages.
Massachusetts agricultural system..... 460
" population..... 461
" paupers & blacks 462
" products..... 462
" manufactures 463
" rail-roads..... 464
" lunatics..... 464
" common schools.. 465
" births, marriages, and deaths..... 466
" productive classes 466
" longevity in..... 467
" banks..... 472
" Insurance offices.. 473
Mulattoes..... 284
Molasses..... 306
Montgomery, Ala..... 402
Mechanic associations..... 419
Manufactures in the west..... 68
Mission of America..... 108
Magnetic telegraph lines..... 137
Markets of New-Orleans..... 555

Vol. V.

Maguey, culture of, in Mexico... 401
Mann, W. W., (of Paris)—letter on agriculture of France..... 390
Maury, Lieut. M. F.—report on gulf stream..... 64
Maine, silk culture in..... 435
Martinique, its productions and manufactures..... 473
Matanzas, exports of..... 469
McCormick, J. R.—article on universities..... 231
McCulloh, Prof.—report on sugar reviewed..... 249
Mercantile biography,—Jacques Coeur..... 73
Mexico, contributions by U. S. to support war, 97; tour in 1825, 401
Mines—copper on Lake Superior, 382; in North Carolina.. 93
Mint, coinage of U. States....98, 298
Missouri, mineral wealth of..... 93
Monette, J. W.—article on public lands.....15, 111
Morus Multicaulis, excitement in 419
Montserrat, description of..... 479
Mulberry, cultivation of, 333, 411, varieties of..... 421

Vol. VI.

McCulloh's report on sugar..... 24
Mineral lands..... 92
Money of commerce..... 243
Mississippi..... 285
Missouri..... 285
Michigan..... 285
Militia of the states..... 59
Merchant fleets of all nations... 322
Marine of nations..... 322
Money, continental..... 58
Manufactories in the west..... 75
Mobile..... 229
Massachusetts enterprise..... 369
Manufactures in South Carolina 370
Mobile—exports, 1848—do. cotton—imports..... 428
Memphis, Tenn.—Statistics taxable..... 429
Monthly value cotton—exports.. 446
Monthly value tobacco—exports 446

Vol. VII.

Memphis and Pacific rail-road... 23
Mississippi..... 38
" resources & wealth of, 40
" swamp..... 53
Mobile and Ohio rail-road..... 89
Mechanics' Institute, S. Carolina, 92

Pages.
Mississippi river and valley..... 103
Money, value of..... 123
Manufactures, by steam or water power..... 128
Massachusetts compared with Maryland..... 137
Manufactures in Tennessee.... 177
Memphis and St. Louis Conventions..... 188
Mammoth remains in Kentucky. 200
" cave of " 201
Maunsel White's commercial endowment..... 230
Middle ages, commerce of..... 234
Massachusetts enterprise..... 251
Mortality in cities..... 266
Mobile and Ohio rail-road..... 267
" and New-Orleans compared..... 269
" situation and advantages of..... 269
Mississippi Valley, prospects of, 284
Michigan, lake..... 288
Mississippi, early discoveries... 321
Mechanics' Institute..... 347
Mobile and Ohio rail-road...373, 459
McCulloh's sugar report..... 377
Mississippi cotton crop..... 411
Mobile trade..... 446
Miles's oration..... 466
Massachusetts, early history.... 468
Maryland " " 468
Michigan..... 475
Maine..... 476
Missouri..... 476
Mobile and Ohio rail-road..... 536
Memphis Convention, resolutions of..... 551

Vol. VIII.

Manufactures at New-Orleans... 1
" in South Carolina. 24
Mississippi valley and river, 84, 105, 282, 335
Manufactures at South. southern absenteeism, condition of S. Carolina, advantages of manufacturing establishments,—northern factories, etc., statistics of cotton factories..... 134
Memphis Convention, its proceedings, etc..... 217
Mules..... 387
Manufactures of cotton..... 71
" in west and in Union 73, 272
" slave labor in..... 75
" southern factories 168
" of granite in South Carolina 169
" southern fair..... 276
" effect on wealth... 726
" at South of cotton. 307
" northern opposition to southern factories..... 392
Mexican war..... 185
Manufacturing in Memphis..... 461
Manufactures in Africa..... 555

Vol. IX.

Mexican mines and minerals.... 31
Mississippi river..... 55
" protection of lowlands 90, 179
" valley..... 304, 354, 594
Medical reports, southern..... 200
Memphis improvements..... 307
Manufacturing industry..... 466
Madder, cultivation of..... 107
Montgomery's patent steam boiler..... 678
Mobile..... 659

VOL. X. Page.

Mississippi valley and river.... 20
Musquite grass..... 88
Manufactures of South.. 93, 215, 461
" Virginia and Maryland..... 343
" Arkansas..... 463
" Georgia..... 344
" New-England..... 345
" Charleston... 347, 463
" Alabama..... 461, 463
" Mississippi 461
Mexican mountains..... 100
Men, races of..... 113
Mississippi, history, &c., of, 188, 423, 495, 605
Memphis..... 452
" manufacturing advantages 525
Mobile rope works..... 560
Meat biscuit manufacture, Texas 589
Maryland, history, etc..... 645

VOLS. I & II.

Neutrality of Com. Review, v. i. 6
Neutral nations, v. i..... 219
" property with enemy, v. i. 220
Nashville rail-road, v. i..... 24
" history and trade of, v. i. 502
New-Orleans & Charleston, v. i. 44
New-Orleans, history of, v. i, 46; population of, v. i., 47; tonnage of, v. i., 53; markets, monthly, v. i., 93; 190, 286; commercial statistics of, v. ii., 420, 424; progress and statistics of, v. ii. 421
New-Mexico trade with, v. i..... 290
New-York, shipping of, v. i..... 186
" its finances, v. i..... 187
" state commerce, v. ii. 402
" city commerce, v. ii.. 411
Natchez, Miss., history, v. i..... 146
Naval resources, south and west, v. i..... 251
Norway, trade with, v. ii.. 395
Netherlands, trade with, v. ii.... 395

VOL. III.

New-Orleans..... 39
" value of its commerce 39
" advance in population..... 40
" shipping..... 41
" competition with east 43
" commercial facilities..... 45
" improvement in the Mississippi 47
Norman's supplement..... 90
New-Orleans, competition with New-York..... 108
New-Orleans, capital of the west 111
" its romance..... 236
" its founding..... 237
" picture of in 1760, 238
" approaches to the city..... 239
" health of..... 250, 373
" commerce of..... 276
" foreign trade..... 346
" municipalities.... 316
New-York commerce 274
Negro management..... 419
Nicaragua, lake of..... 498

VOL. IV.

New-Orleans, origin, &c., of... 45
" " 63, 121
" " custom-house accounts 381
" " health..... 399

Page.

New-Orleans commerce..... 391
" " life in..... 401
Nashville..... 55
Northern rail-road to Pacific.. 170
North Carolina, resources, etc. 256
New-York, history and statistics 258
" " population, etc... 259
" " commerce of..... 335
Negro, physical history of.. 277, 285
" mortality at the North, etc. 278
" condition at the South. .. 279
" character 280
" affected by climate 281
" statistics of..... 282
" wealth at the North and South..... 283, 290
Native wines 310
New archangel 477
Northern and southern markets, for foreign goods 493
Nebulæ 183
North American lakes..... 548
New-Orleans..... 554

VOL. V.

Natchez, manufacturing establishments in..... 379
New-York City—commercial growth and greatness of, 30; discovery of by the Dutch 1609, 30; first charter by James II., 1686, 31; charter awarded by British king, 31; population 1796 to 1847, 32, 33; population classed according to nativity, 36; coal trade, steam-boats and factories, 37; assessed value of property 1816 to 1847, 37; canal trade and speculation, 1836, 37; taxes levied 1835 to 1847, 38; foreign commerce 1821 to 1847, 38; value of produce from canals, 39; tonnage, and Croton aqueduct, 39, 41; banks, and city debt, 40, 41, 77, 197; usury laws of state, 43; exports and imports for 1847, 76; price of cotton in, 81; revenue of canals several years, 106; rates of freights 1847-8, 203; imports and duties three years..... 296
N. Orleans—prices in, compared with Charleston, 90; increased receipts of cotton in, 172; importation of specie in, 174; produce delivered in, 4 years, 198; advantages to, university 239
Nesbit, J. T.—article on essay writing.. 303
New-York, silk departments in.. 442
Nevis, description of..... 479
Negro, physical capacity of..... 493
North Carolina—mineral resources of, 93; rail-roads in..... 381
Norton, R. G.—letter on sugar of Texas..... 183

VOL. VI.

Natchitoches, La 107
New-Brunswick..... 181
Nova Scotia..... 181
Newfoundland 181
New-Britain 181
New-Mexico 204
North Carolina..... 285
Navies of all nations 322
New-Orleans, reminiscences of . 156
New-Orleans in mid-summer . 231
Newspapers in New-Orleans . 232
N. Orleans first cotton receipts.. 432
New-Orleans—vital statistics... 433

Page.

New-Orleans—receipts, produce 433
New-Orleans mechanics..... 457

VOL. VII.

Nicaragua, Isthmus connection.. 10
New-York and New-Orleans connection 44
North and south compared..... 134
New-York compared with Virginia..... 138
Negro, whether capable of freedom..... 207
" in Africa 209
" if capable of high civilization 211
New-Orleans, progress of..... 231
North and south contrasted..262, 304
New-York and New-Orleans intercommunication..... 333
Nott's lectures on man 377
Negro slavery at the South. 379
" compared with factory laborers..... 380
" treatment in the South.. 381
New-Orleans in 1822..... 412
" " early improvements, trade, etc..... 415
" " " appearance 416
" " hospitals, canals etc. 419
" " commerce in 1849... 420
" " imports and exports 421
" " shipping..... 423
" " minute statistics of 424
New-Orleans, remarks on annual commerce of..... 428
New-York, trade and commerce of 447
Navigation laws..... 448
New-England ships and shipping 452
New-York, early history 469
New-Jersey " " 469
Northwest boundary..... 481
North Carolina, advantages and resources 544

VOL. VIII.

New-Orleans, manufactures at.. 1
New-Orleans..... 32
" her competition with Atlantic cities.....
" improvements, &c... 497
" levee dues and wharfage..... 575
" chamber of commerce 577
New-Orleans enterprise..... 589
Negroes in South..... 587

VOL. IX.

New-Orleans, health of..... 228
" mortality..... 254
" afloat again..... 572
Negro, physical character of.... 231
" houses for..... 325
" life..... 325
Nashville Convention..... 9
New-Orleans trade and commerce..... 529, 660

VOL. X.

New-Orleans, statistics of trade, 198, 315, 447
" destiny 440
" meteorology..... 479
" thoughts on a rail-road system for, 175, 502
" rail-road enterprises, etc..... 586
" health and mortality of..... 59[illegible]
Nature, study of..... [illegible]
Negro, management of..... 395, [illegible]
" destiny of.....

Page.
Negro civilization..... 332
" culture, etc..... 487
North Carolina scenery..... 354
New-Orleans trade, Atlantic railroad influence on 576
New-Orleans and N Y. steamers 602

VOLS. I. & II.

Oregon, v. i..... 66
Ohio river, commerce of, v. i.... 78
" " hydrography of, v. i. 78
Oswego, N. Y., v. i..... 159
Office Commercial Review, v. i.. 596
Oats, crop U. S., v. ii..... 117

VOL. III.

Ohio, real estate, commerce, etc. 130
" products..... 131
" manufactures 132
" river..... 428
Ouachita region of Louisiana... 225
Olive cultivation at South..... 265
Ouachita..... 324

VOL. IV.

Origin of western commerce.... 21
Oregon, valley of..... 53
Ohio, progress, &c., of..... 66
Ouachita, valley of..... 226
" soil of..... 226
" vine culture..... 227
" Mulberry culture..... 228
" fruit culture..... 228
" cotton..... 228

VOL. V.

Ohio, valley of, adapted to manufactures, 13; advantages for manufacturing..... 534
Ores, quantity net copper from native..... 382

VOL. VI.

Ohio..... 285

VOL. VII.

Ohio and Virginia compared.... 143
Oyster trade, legend of..... 274
Ontario lake, tonnage of..... 281
Ohio..... 470
Odd Fellows in United States... 549

VOL. IX.

Ouachita, La.—Monroe..... 669

VOL. X.

Olive Tree..... 86

VOLS. I. & II.

Peruvian cotton, v. ii..... 439
Post office reform, v. i..... 69
" of Great Britain, v. i. 69
" of United States, v. i. 71
Penny post system, v. i..... 69
Public works on G. of Mexico, v. i..... 76
Public schools, N Orleans, v. i.. 83
Population G. Britain, France, etc., v. i..... 92, 151, 255
Pittsburg, trade of, etc., v. i.... 78
Portland, Maine, v. i..... 484
Portsmouth, N. H., v. i..... 484
Providence, R. I., v. i..... 184
Pensacola, Florida, v. i..... 264
Phœnician trade, v. i.. ... 100
Political influence of commerce, v. i..... 112
Premiums, agricultural, v. i.. 167
Pilotage, Charleston bar, v. i.. 175
Pilot system of N. Orleans, v. ii. 207
Peace and war, v. i..... 193

Page.
Privateering, v. i..... 213, 515
Passports, v. i..... 214
Policy of insurance, v. ii..... 5
Planting interests, v. i. 233
Prices sugar and molasses, v. i... 379
" influences by supplies, v. i. 468
Pork, product of west, v. i..... 476
" inspection of, v. ii..... 360
Parties, progress of, v ii..... 78
spirit of, v. ii. 79
Profession, legal, v. ii 142
Philosopher's stone, ii..... 293
Patent systems, v. ii 105
right laws, v ii. 107
Prize essays Commercial Review, v. ii..... 215
Pledge, v. ii..... 224
Public baths, v. ii..... 231
Precious metals, v. ii. 289
Potato crop, v. ii..... 118
Penitentiary of Louisiana, v. i.. 425
Position and prospects New Orleans, ... 53
Portugal, trade with, ii..... 393
Pennsylvania, commerce of, v. ii. 402
Philadelphia, " " v. ii. 411

VOL. III.

Public schools..... 80
Produce at N. Orleans, charges on..... 104
Point Coupee, Louisiana..... 119
Port system..... 149
Post-office in antiquity..... 150
" among ancients..... 151
" middle ages..... 151
" in England..... 152
" penny..... 154
" history of, in England, 156
" rates for letters..... 158
Ploughing, subsoil..... 169
Population U S., progress..... 176
Pittsburgh..... 177
Parishes of Louisiana.....179, 350
Plaquemines, Louisiana..... 257
Products, new, for U S. 269
Plaquemines region 305
" its products, etc... 308
Pork business, ..133, 340
Phila., manufactures of.....274, 345
Pensacola..... 349
Pilot laws of New-Orleans..... 432
Post-office regulations..... 442
Polynesian Isles..... 492

VOL. IV.

Pittsburgh..... 53
Population, advance in the west, 73
Prattsville, Alabama..... 136
Planetary system..... 179
Prairies. 228
Principles of sugar manufacture, 307
Prices of cotton in New-York... 337
Political complexion of Rome... 359
Progress of law..... 363
Peruvian sheep and wool..... 377
Produce at New Orleans..... 394
Prospects of American agriculture..... 405
Precious metals..... 92
Plants..... 185
Private property for public uses, 265
Production and manuf. of wool. 373
Prices of sugar, cotton, flour, corn, pork, etc., at N. Orleans, 396
Paper manufacture in the U. S.. 413

VOL. V.

Peck, Henry J.—article on deer hunting..... 298
Philadelphia, trade of..... 106

Page.
Pittsburgh, trade and manufactures of..... 375
Population—valley of Mississippi, 191; foreign into U. States 50 years, 243-8; white in free and slave states, 50 years, compared..... 246
Printing press—essay on the, 303; Athens without, 305; power of..... 315
Pound sterling, value of in Federal money..... 385
Post system, statistics of in Europe and U. States. 152
Power, steam and water, relative cost of 532
Porto Rico, imports, exports and duties 471
Pulque, manufacture of, in Mexico. 401
Publishing business, books noticed,.....106, 209, 299, 399, 537
Pyramids, description of..... 401

VOL. VI.

Peru..... 3
Paraguay..... 3
Patagonia 3
Printing and Printers..... 45
Public lands 92
Property, value of in each state. 59
Population of the world..... 60
Passage, rates of in the United States..... 62
Pork trade. 65, 145
Papal states 68
Pepper 162
Patent office..... 233
Population of the United States. 365
Porto Rico. 372
Postal reform. 158
Publishing business..... 160
Prices cotton..... 443
Prices flour..... 444
Prices corn..... 445
Prices tobacco..... 445
Pork, bacon, lard and beef..... 447

VOL. VII.

Population United States, progress of..... 3
Panama, Isthmus connection.... 10
Patent office report, 1848. 84
Periodical publication 99, 465
Population, Spanish American.. 167
West Indies ... 169
Political economy its history and octrines. 232
Population of the South..... 305
Pauperism of the North..... 308
Practical education 318
Philadelphia, commerce of..... 365
Plank roads. ... 407, 462
Poinsett's report on Indian corn. 440
Panama cotton. 444
Pennsylvania..... 469
Plank roads..... 534

VOL. VIII.

Population, operation of, in Europe and U. States. .207, 522
Pacific rail-road, address of Memphis convention in regard to. 217
Patent office report, 1849 267
Pennsylvania and her resources 168
Plankroads at South 73, 298, 388, 469
Physical science..... 190
Publishing business, 96, 206, 311, 406
Present and future prospects of Great Britain relative to the supply and consumption of cotton..... 562
Proposal to re-levee the state of Louisiana..... 496

VOL. IX. Page.

Population U. S. ... 85
Political economy ... 257
Pacific rail-road ... 601
Progress of American cities, 529, 639
Product and consumption of sugar in new world ... 663

VOL. X.

Popocatepetl, ascent of ... 97
Pratt, Daniel, of Alabama ... 224
Population, North and South ... 361
Plank roads ... 475, 665
Population East and West ... 479

VOLS. I. & II.

Quarantine laws, v. i. ... 82
Queries to cotton planters, v. i. .. 453

VOLS. I. & II.

Rail-road, Mississippi and Atlantic, v. i., 21; receipts, Georgia, v. i., 22; to the Pacific Ocean, v. i., 23; Safety of, v. i., 83; in the west, v. i., 176; Mexican Gulf, v. i., 84; Carolina, v. i., 384; to Oregon, v. i., 85; Central, v. i., 175; in Prussia, v. i., 189; to California, v. i., 279, 280; American and foreign, v. i. ... 285
Roman commerce, v. i. ... 101
Rights of peace, v. i. ... 200
Reciprocity treaties, v. ii. ... 382
Rye crop of U. S., v. ii. ... 117
Rotation of crops, v. ii. ... 137
Reminiscences of west, v. ii. ... 177
Rio Grande, valley of, v. ii. ... 363
Remedy for cotton planters, v. i. 434
Rice, v. i., 320; cultivation in east, v. i., 320; varieties and culture of, v. i., 323, 326; Carolina varieties, v. i., 326; crop of the U. S., v. i., 331; mode of culture, v. i., 334; mills, v. i., 343; of Louisiana, v. i., ... 356
Russia, trade with, v. ii. ... 394
Richmond, commerce of, v. ii. .. 412

VOL. III.

Richardson's dictionary ... 91
Railroads, Eastern and Western, 98
Railroads, South ... 447, 558
Roses ... 137
Railways in Europe & America, 138
Railroads in France ... 140
" Germany ... 140
" United States ... 141
" at South and West. 145
" to California ... 147
" to Pacific ... 148
Rice in Louisiana ... 416
Russian principles of trade ... 437
Romance of Louisiana history .. 459
Rail road through Texas to Pacific Ocean ... 478
Cost of, and distances ... 482
Map of ... 483
Rio Grande Valley ... 496

VOL. IV.

Rio Grande Valley ... 32
Religious toleration ... 115
Red River sugar region ... 135
Rail roads to Pacific ... 166
Revealed truth ... 193
Rights of the South ... 211
River and harbor improvements, 291
Revenue U. S., 1789–1847 ... 382
Railroad to Tenessee river ... 408
" from Tuscaloosa ... 409
Rocky Mountain flax ... 413

Page.

Roman judiciary ... 487
" pleadings ... 489
Reciprocity systems ... 437
Russian America ... 476
Reminiscences of New-Orleans. 554

VOL V.

Rail-roads—interest of New-Orleans in sundry, 187; Pacific, Mr. Whitney's tour South, 189; Charleston and Tennessee, 89; St. Louis and Cincinnati, 91; Mobile and Ohio, 92; Charleston and Greenville, 92; Wilmington and Manchester, 92; movement in Great Britain, table-, &c., 281; Southern, length and profits of, 381; receipts and expenditures of 529; in Great Britain, 526; length, fare, &c. in the United States, 527; influence of ... 454
Red River, raft in ... 94
Rivers, western, commerce of ... 377
Rice, cultivation of in East Indies ... 181, 275
Rilleux, N.—letter on sugar machinery ... 291
Rochester, N. Y., flour mills of .. 165
Royal Exchange, London, resort of merchants, 75; regulator of commerce ... 75
Rum, product of on sugar estates, 179

VOL. VI.

Rice in Louisiana ... 53
Revenue of England, etc. ... 158
Revenue of U. States since 1789, 365
Revolutionary services of the states in men and money ... 373

VOL. VII.

Rail-roads across the Isthmus ... 15
" to Mazatlan ... 17
" to San Diego or San Francisco ... 25
" progress in U. States .. 32
" in the world, statistics of ... 33
" across Florida peninsula ... 44
" Mobile and Ohio .. 89, 459
" in Alabama ... 161
Rural life in the south ... 306
Religion of the North and South 311
Rail roads of Georgia ... 335
Rail-road from New-York to N. Orleans ... 338
" to Pacific ... 410
Rail-road in Tennessee and Alabama ... 458
Rio Grande trade ... 445
Rail road from New-Orleans to Jackson, Miss ... 532
Republic of United States, its progress ... 468
Rhode Island, early history ... 469
Rivers of America ... 514
River basins of the world ... 515
Railways of Great Britain ... 523
Railway statistics of Europe and America ... 525
Rail-road enterprise of Georgia 533
" meetings at New-Orleans ... 559

VOL. VIII.

Rail-roads, connection of New-York, New-Orleans, and San Francisco ... 3
" Florida peninsula ... 30
" Tehuantepec ... 30
" to the Pacific considered 217

Page.

Rail-road improvements at the South ... 86
" improvements in ... 89
" inventions ... 90
" progress of southern ... 171
" New-Orleans & Jackson 177
" Alabama enterprise in .. 178
" in Virginia ... 284
" Attakapas and Mississippi ... 391
" from New-Orleans to Jackson, Mississippi .. 486
" in Missouri ... 571
Russia ... 288

VOL. IX.

Red Sea and the East, commerce of ... 132
Reviews, suppositious ... 158, 392
Rail-road transport, at home and abroad ... 513
" Alabama and Tenn. ... 218
" Memphis and Charleston ... 224
" N. Carolina ... 225
" Manchester ... 226
" Baltimore and the west 227
" Tennessee ... "
" New-Orleans ... "
" Alabama, Mobile, and Chicago ... 440
" Girard and Mobile ... 445
" Vicksburg and Jackson ... 448
" Mobile, Ohio and Ill. ... 551
" Alabama and Tenn. ... 552
" Pacific, Missouri ... 554
" Nashville and Chattanooga ... 554
" Wilmington, Raleigh, and Manchester ... "
" Virginia and Tenn. ... 555
" Orange and Alexandria 556
" Charleston and Columbia ... "
Rice production in southern states ... 200
" culture ... 421
Resources of Ohio, Indiana, Oswego and Buffalo, Pittsburg, Nashville, Mobile, Texas, Georgia, Florida, and North Carolina ... 191, 200
Revenues of leading public Works ... 227

VOL. X.

Rail-road, Tehuantepec ... 94, 342
" system for New-Orleans ... 175, 465
" in Louisiana, 236, 341, 473
" Louisville & Memphis, 338
" Georgia ... 339, 382, 478
" Virginia ... 340, 341
" Alabama and Tennessee ... 349, 467, 470, 473
" North Carolina ... 349
" South Carolina ... 467, 469
" in Southern States ... 57
Red River Raft, &c. ... 10
Randolph, John ... 22
Regulator, the ... 413, 61

VOLS. I. & II.

Sugar, manufacture of, v. i., 53; ii., 322; crops of Louisiana, v. i. 54, 320; ii., 322; interests, v. ii., 212; crop of world, v. ii., 214; West India, v. ii. ...
Sugar region, extension of, v. ii.
Southern rail-road enterprises, v. i. ...

Page

Southern agriculture, v. i. 220
South and west, productions of, v, i. 254
" its duties, v. ii. 129
" enterprise of, v. ii. 407
South Carolina manufactures, v. i. 276
" " commerce of, v. ii. 402
" American cotton, v. i. 317
" " trade, v. ii. 399
" spirit of, v. ii. 119
St. Louis, commerce, etc., of, v. i., 79, 255, 147; steamers of, v. i., 277; trade of, v. ii. 411
States of the Union, trade of, v. i., 179; ii., 402; imports and exports since 1791, v. ii. 40
Search, right of, v. ii. 206
Savannah, Geo., v. i. 276
Savannah, commerce of, v. ii. 418
Ship canal on lakes, v. i. 80
Sandusky, v. i. 158
Sea Island cotton, v. i. 304
Stock jobbing, v. i. 301
Silk product, United States and Louisiana, v. i., 381; ii. 118, 218
Slave law of Louisiana, v. i. 410
Slavery, ancient and modern, v. ii. 351
Statistical information, v. i. 465
Standing armies of Europe, v. ii. 427
Science and art compared, v. ii. 98
" of ancients, v. ii. 99
" progress of, v. ii. 76
Salvage, v. ii. 17
Smuggling, v. ii. 262
Sub-treasury, v. ii. 202
Seas, products of, v. ii. 383
Sealed instruments, history and law of, v. ii. 431
Silver and gold, v. ii. 290
Sale, contract of, v. ii. 345
Spain, trade with, v. ii. 393
Sweden, trade with, v. ii. 395

Vol. III.

Sugar-estates below city 118
Society and man 165
Steamboat losses 176
St. Louis 176, 323, 347
Slave labor, its influences 193
" " in manufactories 196
South and west facilities for manufactures 197
" products of 199
South, wealth and pauperism of 199
Sugar, its color, etc. 231
" its crystals 233
" culture 245, 580
" plantation at work 248
Sugar interests 269
Steamboat landing, New-Orleans 240
Ship Levee at New-Orleans 241
Small pox, history of 251
Statistics, science of 270
Sugar planters, notes for 294
" elements of the cane 299
" constitution of cane 301
Steam navigation on the Missouri 327
Sugar in Texas 341
Sugar, manufacture of 376
" adjustment of kettles 379
" rationale of 380
" fuel for producing 381
" clarification of 383
" juice of 383
" use of lime 384
" clarifiers 385
" use of steam in 387
" *machinery used* 388
" *Rillieux's improvement* 392
" *De Rosne & Lail do.* 393
" *boiling in vacuo* 395

Page.

Savannah 348
" commerce of 396
" its position 399
" improvement 400
" destiny of 402
" lumber trade of 404
Sugar crop 442
Slavery and slave trade 421
" statistics 422
Silk at South 444
South, new products 464
Shang-hae, China 488
Sandwich Islands 490
Statistics in colleges 507
Slaves, manumission of 547
Southern trade with Europe 557
Shreveport, Louisiana 584

Vol. IV.

Steam power in west 23, 82
" boats and floats at N. O. 392
" navigation at South 355
Sugar and cotton introduction into Louisiana 41
Sugar exports and imports, U. S. 129
" early history of 132
" in Mexico 134
" cultivation, &c. 152
" constituents of 153
" cane 153
" juice 154
" analysis of 155
" mill and machinery 157
" culture and manufacture 296
" trade of New-Orleans 393
" crop of Louisiana 398
" manufacture on old and new plans 426
" drainage on 427
" manures 429
" machines 431
" crystals 431
" prospects of Louisiana, 435, 447
Southern rail-road to Pacific 170
" progress 209
" cities, health of 210
" institutions 219
" slavery 229
South, advantages for trade 217
South and west 223
State debts 264
Spirits consumed in England 268
Slaves at the South 278
Slave question 287
Syrups 303
Scuppernong wine 316
Sheep 374
" their history 375
" among ancients 375
" " moderns 376
" in the west 409
Sea Island cotton 410
Salt, a manure 430
Sitka and the fur trade 475
Sandwich Islands 498
" " products 479
" " manufactures 480
" " commerce of 483
Soils for sugar-cane in India 514
Soils for cotton in India 531
Spindles and cotton machinery. 544
Statistics of cotton manufactures 546
Statistics, importance of 547
St. Lawrence river 549
Sugar exports from Cuba 550
Slave trade in Africa 550
Sierra Leone, Africa 550
Slaves of New-Orleans 555

Vol. V.

Saccharometer, Soleil's, description of 357

Page.

Science and commerce, contributions of navy to 64
Seeds, depth of planting 385
Ship canal, ode on, by Professor Lieber 388
Silk, culture and manufacture of in United States, 324; origin of its industry, 411; early history, 411; peculiar views of Chinese in preservation of eggs, 411; manufacture in England, 413; early manufacture in Georgia, 415; culture, comparative profits of, 439; departments in N. York 441
Slaves, increase and improvement in value of 370
Southwest, agriculture and manufactures in 275
South Carolina, new rail-roads in, 92; products of, compared with Rhode Island, 185; cotton and iron manufactures in, 189; rail-roads in 381
Soapayuca, hacienda of 405
St. Louis, trade of five years, 370; receipts at custom-house of, five years 372
St. Christopher, description of 479
St. Lucia, description of 480
St. Vincent, description of 480
Sub-treasury, operation of 531
Sugar, improved methods of manufacturing, 44, 56; beet, 12 per cent. of juice, 48; production of, in Florida, 12; use of in manufacture of wine, 27; cane, culture of, 81, 86; supply in Europe, 104; soils, seed and cutting, apparatus, etc., for beet, 135; nutritious and medicinal properties of, 187; McCulloh's report on, reviewed, 219; experiments in the manufacture of, 225, 9; lands in Texas, 316; improved method of crystalizing, 357; London prices of 521

Vol. VI.

South America, historical progress, character, governments, people, &c. 3
Sugar-cane 24
Sugar manufacture, physiology, &c. 114
San Francisco 204
Sugar manufacture; extraction of juices; sugar mills; product of mills; fuel; steam-power, &c. 265
Southern and western states, industry of 285
Sword and Olive Branch 304
South Carolina 285
Shipping of all nations 322
Sugar-cane, by M'Culloh 334
Sugar, imports of 141, 152
Sugar-making 363
States, date of admission into the Union, 59; area of states 59
Statistical bureaus 79
Statistical societies 374
Statistics, interesting 367
Statistics, American 57
Savannah 228
St. Louis 230
Smithsonian Institute 233
Saccharine liquids 375
St. Louis, Mo.—imports 430
Statement cotton 439
Statement tobacco 441
Sugar, molasses, &c. 446, 449
Statistics of Louisiana sugar 456

Page.

VOL. VII.

San Francisco..... 29
South, destinies of..... 37
Sugar, improvements in..... 57
Slavery in new territories..... 62
Sea-shore, &c., United States... 86
Slave laws, South Carolina..... 87
Sugar, polarization of..... 111
" beet..... 112
" apparatus of Howard.... 113
" " " Degrand.... 114
" " " Derosne & Lail..... 116
" statistics various apparatus 120
Steam as compared with water power in manufactures. 132
South, its progress compared with that of the North. 136
Slave holding states, position 139
Southern civilization..... 141
South Carolina, products of agriculture..... 145
" " sea islands of.... 146
" " swamps and highlands of..... 147
" " health of..... 148
" " minerals, plants, &c. 149
" " staples & products 150
Spanish American population... 167
Slave population, West Indies.. 171
Sugar, crops of world..... 172
St. Louis, trade and commerce 179, 180, 181
Steam-boat losses in the west, annually..... 183
Slaves in United States in 1783.. 206
Slavery its justification..... 212
Slave treatment at the South... 220
" compared with European operative..... 223
Science, slow progress of..... 227
" modern and ancien compared..... 228
Sugar, various processes of manufacture compared.. 240–46
Ship building in the west..... 256
Slave laws of the Sou 271
emancipation laws..... 272
Sword and olive branc ... 276, 547
Slavery at the Sout 289
history of..... 290
Swamps of Louisiana and Florida 298
Slater, the cotton manufacturer. 351
Shoe bus Lynn 368
Southern manufactures 370
Slavery, agitation of 385
" at th North. 386
" view of the South..... 387
Slaves, their number..... 388
Sugar cane, analysis..... 389
" " approved modes of manufacture..... 395
Sugar cane, crops, 1849..... 431
" " crops of world..... 441
St. Louis, tonnage 445
Shipping, A and foreign, 448
interests of New-Eng'd 451
Shoes for plantations, South. . 456
Slavery its social effects, etc., etc. 490
St. Louis convention, resolutions of..... 551
Savannah and Charleston..... 558
Steam plow 562
Slave laws of the South..... 566

VOL. VIII.

Slave laws of the South, Miss... 22
" South Carolina. 69, 182 294, 579
Statesmen, North and South.... 62
Statistical bureaus..... 32

Page.

Southern states—review of Elwood Fisher's pamphlet, progressive movements at South, southern and northern states, hopes of the South, rights and remedies under the constitution..... 45
Sugar manufacture, the new process of Melssens..... 111, 300, 491
Slavery, Hammond's letters on, 122, 252
Slavery, Chancellor Harper's memoir..... 232, 339
Slave and free labor..... 271
Slave trade 158
Savannah, Georgia. 243
Statistical bureau of Louisiana, report to legislature.. .. 422
Southern industry, its progress.
Sugar, song of the cane fields .. 68
Steamboat xplosions. .. 91
South Carolina population of.. 92
Ship building in the west and in United States 394
Steam on the Ohio. 94
Steamboat disasters on western rivers, 1849. 375
Successful sugar making in Florida.... 492
Schutzenbach's system of curing sugar..... 493
South Carolina mechanics' and agricultural institute. 494
Sugar products of north west Louisiana..... 568
Sugar exports of Cuba. 488
Ship building in New-York..... 490
St. Louis chamber of commerce. 576
States and territories of the U. States..... 569

VOL. IX.

Slavery progress and prospects.. 9
" Dr. Channing reviewed. 22
" Mr. Calhoun's letter to Mr. King..... 184
" and the bible..... 281
" Chancellor Harper's memoi . 495, 611
Spain, literature of 66
Submerged lands 300
Spanish parties in the west..... 357
Scuppernong grape 381
Sugar manufacture. 521
" producti and history .. 109
" West India mode of culture..... 320
" improved process of making..... 417
" chemical and other doctrines of..... 521
" agencies of heat, lime and impurities 625
" product and mption in world. 663
" improved rocess..... 665
Song of the cane fields..... 428, 668
Sidney Smith on modern progress..... 650
South, cause of..... 129
Ship building in the U. States... 514
" " in Pittsburg..... 339
Steam navigation between the South and Europe..... 545
" American and British steamers..... 548

VOL. X.

South and her remedies 1
Suppositious, reviews ..13, 163, 237
Sugar manufacture..... 25, 386
" Melsen's process..... 586
Slavery, by Harper..... 47
Slavery, essay on..... 658

Page.

Sullivan's Island, S. C..... 81
Slavery north and south, 83, 110, 333 478, 481
South Carolina, statistics..... 85
" progress of industry in... 562
Slave trade, African..... 206
" " the north carrying on 558
Southern cause..... 106, 231
" power & resources, 108, 201
" wealth 109
" literature. 238
South, future of. 132, 265
" and the Union 151
" and its commerce. 195
Spanish parties west..... 147
Southern mercantile marine, 197, 317 323
" trade with Europe, 203, 445
Sugar trade of the world. 205
Sugar mills..... 217
" process of Rousseau..... 259
" imports sixty years 322
" consumption of U. S. and Europe 564
Shipping of U. S. 320
St. Louis.. .... 320, 449
Steamships at South 323, 363
Southern watering places. 354
" education 362, 476
" public lands 363
" steamship enterprise.. 561
South and north 458
" and its products..... 459
Savannah..... 462
San Francisco, commerce of.... 553
Southern cotton mills. 680
S. W. R. R. Convention at N. O. 690

VOLS. I. & II.

Tennessee, her resources, v. i .. 25
Texas emigration, etc., v. i..... 77
Tyre and Sidon, v i. 100
Trade regulation with China, v. i..... 88
Telegraph, Morse's, v. i..... 137
" Foreign, v. i..... 139
" routes in U. S., v. i... 138
Tea, American, v. i..... 185
Treasury, U. S., v. i..... 189
Tariff of Cuba, v. i..... 180
Tariffs of America, v. ii... .. 91, 102
" " U. S., history of. v. ii. 405
Treaties, v. i., 215; ii..... 245
" during war, v. ii..... 245
Taxation, doctrine of, v. ii... 93, 261
Tides of he Miss ssippi, v. ii.... 181
Tobacco trade, v. i., 42, 249; inspection in Louisiana, v. ii., 43, 355; exports from U S., v. ii., 47; culture in West, v. ii., 149; monopolies, v. ii..... 256

VOL. III.

Taxes seized under execution... 56
Trade of West, contests for..... 99
" in New-Orleans..... 100
" to the East..... 101
Texas, navigation and wealth of. 350
Tehuantepec canal..... 499
" map of Isthmus... 501
" cost of canal..... 500
Texas sugar soils, analysis..... 553
Tobacco trade, U. S 575
" " restrictions..... 578

VOL. IV.

Turpentine of North Carolina... 257
Tobacco trade, United States... 391
" in Louisiana.... 448
Texas, resources of ...312, 262
" soils. 319
" sugar and cotton..... 32
" corn and grain..... 3
" silk, tobacco, etc..... 3

Page.
Trade, principles of..... 224
Temperature of Florida..... 24
Tennessee, progress, etc., of.... 64
Trade of India in cotton..... 539
Toronto, Canada..... 547

Vol. V.

Texas, British, in 1847-8..... 294
Tea, exports of, from China, 1846-7..... 104
Tennessee, adapted to manufactures..... 190
Texas, sugar lands of, 316; fertility and cost of lands in.....
Tezcuco, ruins of..... 405
Teotihuacan, pyramids of..... 409
Tobacco, history of, 282; trade in St. Louis, 371; crop of in France..... 398
Touro, J.—donation to University of La..... 240
Tobago, description of..... 480
Trinidad, description of..... 483
Turpentine, production of in North Carolina and Georgia.. 364

Vol. VI.

Tennessee..... 285
Treaties with Indians..... 59
Trade of the United States with all nations..... 136
Tonnage of the United States... 141
Texas, growth and crops of..... 153
Texas, internal improvements in 364
Territories of the United States. 368
Tobacco exported..... 440
Tobacco..... 450

Vol. VII.

Tehuantepec, Isthmus connection..... 11
Trade, United States, with all nations..... 75, 82
Tonnage, United States..... 83
Tennessee, manufactures of..... 177
Tea culture in southern states.. 272
Texas lands and debt..... 273
" sketches of..... 368
Tobacco crops..... 432
Tennessee rail-roads..... 458
Truscot on foreign policy..... 466
Tennessee..... 470
Territories, annexation of new.. 471
Texas, republic and state of.... 478
Territorial treaties and questions..... 481
Turpentine products of Ala..... 560
Tea plant at the south..... 563

Vol. VIII.

Trade between the states..... 32
Terrebonne parish, Louisiana... 146
Turpentine, manufacture of at South; in South Carolina; process and profits of, etc..... 450
Texas land..... 63
Tobacco of Florida..... 157
Telegraph, magnetic, its history and statistics..... 288

Vol. IX.

Turpentine of Georgia..... 118
Texas woolen..... 150
" claret..... 238
Trade of Great Britain and U. states with S. America.. 338
" & commerce of Charleston, 397
" " " of Augusta... 432
" " " of Cincinnati. 639
" " " of Mobile..... 654
" in bread stuffs..... 544
" of California..... 547

Page.
Trade with China..... 441
" of New-Orleans.....529, 660
Texas..... 200

Vol. X.

Texas coals..... 77
" tales of..... 166, 413
Turkey and her destiny..... 299
Texas grapes..... 336
" 357, 453, 454, 464
" history, etc..... 627
Tennessee..... 572
Tea planting in U. S..... 670

Vols. I. & II.

United States commerce and navigation, v. i., 177; vessels built in twenty years, v. i., 183; imports and exports, 1700-1776, v. ii., 373; commerce, 1790-1846, v. ii., 401; imports and exports, 1845, v. i., 221; cotton crop, v. i., 309; agricultural exports, v. ii., 384; exports domestic manufacture, v. ii..... 388
University of Louisiana, v. i.... 430

Vol. III.

University of Louisiana.... 260, 311

Vol. IV.

University of Louisiana..... 414
U. S. in Mississippi Valley..... 47

Vol. V.

United States, imports and exports of, 76; treasury report for 1847, 97; productions of, 99; mint, coinage of, 98; exports from, four years, 203; immigration into, 245; receipts and expenditures of, 297; deposites in mint, 298; history of silk in, 324; cotton region of, 368; commerce and revenue of, fifty-seven years, 386; banks in..... 173
Universities, defective organization of American..... 231
University of Louisiana, new professorships in, 249; report on medical department, 236; report on law faculty, 236; estimates for support of, 239; report of Rev. Dr. Hawks..... 236

Vol. VI.

Uruguay..... 3
United States, productions of... 60
United States, exports and imports, of 1847..... 135

Vol. VII.

United States, extent of..... 2
" " commerce of, 1848, 75
" " productions of.... 83
" " tonnage of..... 450
Usury laws..... 123
Usury laws, etc..... 501
University of Louisiana.....188, 229
United States, great physical advantages of..... 517

Vol. VIII.

Union of the States, its stability, slave trade, annexation of Texas, products of slave and free labor, commercial advantages of South and what the North realizes from them, southern statistics..... 348

Vol. X.

Page.
Union, blessings of.....109, 367
Unity of the races..... 113
United States—reports of departments, 1850.....
United States, for. com. of..... 550
" " exports & imports 550
" " dom. manuf. of... 561

Vols. I. & II.

Venice, v. i..... 103
Vaksburg, history of, v. i..... 146
Vineyard Sound, v. i..... 184
Virginia, commerce of, v. ii..... 402
Valley of Mississippi, v. ii..... 59
Vacuum pans, v. ii..... 339

Vol. III.

Venice, her rise and fall..... 48
" her commerce..... 54
" her arts..... 55
" her history..... 56
Vital statistics..... 362
Vine at South..... 465
Vera Cruz..... 501

Vol. IV.

Vacuum Sugars..... 302
Valcour Aime's sugar..... 424
Virginia's conquest of Illinois.. 450
Varieties of cotton..... 527
Virginia resolutions on slavery.. 557
Vattemare's international exchanges..... 559

Vol. V.

Valcour, Aime—article reviewing M'Culloh's report on sugar 249
Valley of Mississippi, area, population, wealth, etc..... 191
Van Epps, A. C.—article on silk culture..... 324
Vermont, silk culture in..... 435
Virgin Isles, description of..... 480
Vineyards, profit of in United States, 26; certainty of crops, mode of planting, etc., 26; native grape only successful for wine, 27; in France, acres in cultivation, etc..... 394
Virginia—profits of slavery in, compared with Louisiana, 188; rail-roads in..... 381

Vol. VI.

Venezuela..... 3, 159
Vessels built in the U. States... 137
Vine culture of the South..... 200
Value of produce..... 436
Vessels arrived..... 438

Vol. VII.

Virginia..... 143
Vineyards and their profits..... 438
Vessels built in United States... 449
Virginia..... 468
Vermont..... 470

Vol. VIII.

Vineyards at the South..... 245

Vol. IX.

Vanity, national..... 140

Vol. X.

Van Buren, Ark. cotton and woolen factory..... 564
Virginia Springs..... 353
Virginia..... 536

VOLS. I. & II. *Page.*

Wheat export of England 100 years, v. i. 35
Warehousing policy, v. i. 61
" law, 1846, v. ii. 203
" system, v. ii. 408
War, its rights and duties, v. i. .. 209
" declaration of, v. i. 210
Warranties of insurance, v. ii. .. 14
Wheeling, Virginia, v. i. 255
Well-water in Louisiana, v. i. .. 455
West, navigation of, v. ii. 88
Wisconsin, its minerals, v. ii. .. 361
Whale fisheries, v. ii. 379

VOL. III.

West, destinies of 212
Wreckers of Florida 275
Western ports of entry 441
Wilmington, N. C. 445
Wines, trade in, &c. 464
Whitney's Railroad 486
West, resources of 583

VOL. IV.

Wool 372
Woolen business of Mass. 374
" factory 378
Western produce at N. Orleans. 399
" valleys 31
" manners in early times 49
" bandits 55
West India sugar culture 308
Wines made in the United States, 310
" manufacture of 313
" culture, &c., of, in N. C. .. 315
" consumed in England 268
White and black races 276
Watering places of Louisiana .. 263
Wisconsin, progress, &c. 59, 66
Western fur traders 553
Wilmot proviso 557

VOL. V.

Wedderburn, Dr., report on medical department of University of Louisiana 236
Warehousing system of the U. States 98
Weller, Sidney, of N. C., on vineyards and wine 25

Page

Western cities, commerce and prosperity of, 379; rivers, commerce of, 377; rivers, appropriations by Congress for .. 378
Wheeling, manufactures of 376
White, Maunsell, efforts to establish a chair of commerce, public economy and statistics in University of Louisiana ... 236
Wine, native, easily made in south, 26; ingredients necessary to perfect, 27; to prevent acidity in, and to renew sour, 27; methods of coloring, 27; variety of, by mixing grapes, 29; price of American at Brinkleyville, N. C., 29; consumption of in Great Britain 525
Worm, silk, treatment of, 423; proper temperature for 427

VOL. VI.

Wisconsin 285
World, area of 60
Western rivers, distances on 62
War statistics 74
Western produce 452

VOL. VII.

Western America, prospects of .. 5
Whitney's Pacific rail-road 21
Wine-making, secret of 59
Wilmot proviso 62
Wheat, product U. States, etc. .. 154
" of the North and South .. 155
" American and foreign ... 158
" preparation for market .. 160
W. India population, slavery, etc. 169
Wstn. rivers, casualties on, 184-5-6-7
West, early political troubles in, 195
Wilkinson, Gen., how far guilty, if at all 197
Westn. rivers & lake commerce. 283
Western steam-boat navigation .. 284
West India slavery 290
Well water 342
Wheat exports 369
Water-meter on river 396
Western produce 433

VOL. VIII.

Western states, early politics of 324, 407
West India emancipation, Mr. Carlyle's views on 527
Wheat and flour 66
West, progress of 95
Whale fisheries 404
What the southern and western states can do in competition with the north in manufactures of cotton 550

VOL. IX.

Western and southern states, progress of 191, 307
Wine making 381
Woolen factories of Texas 559
Water, supply of, for cities 240
World's fair, London 575

VOL. X.

Water and its disadvantages 9
West, its growth 199
West, commerce and resources of 555
" steamboat business of 556
" commercial statistics of 556
World's fair 255, 347
Western trade 318
Whale fishery 552
Wilkinson, Miss. factory 564
Winter, John G., biography 582

VOLS. I. & II.

Yellow fever in N. O., v. ii. 73
" " in Mexico, v. ii. 173
" " in America, v. ii. .. 422

VOL. IV.

Yellow fever in New-Orleans ... 401

VOL. VI.

Yellow Fever 156

VOLS. I. & II.

Zollverein trade, &c., v. ii. .. 257, 297

VOL. V.

Zollverein, states composing, and population of, 263-9; propositions to contracting states 271

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ART. I.—THE SOUTH AND HER REMEDIES.

As a public journalist, with all the responsibilities of the position, we have never hesitated, on every proper occasion, to aver openly and boldly our opinions upon the great questions which are now shaking the pillars of the Federal Union. We believe that the position of the South is one of extreme peril—that taking counsel from her *distractions*, her opponents have been gathering strength, and will soon be *irresistible*; that no sense of "returning justice" has yet been exhibited by them; that no olive branch of peace has been tendered, which may with safety be accepted; and no earnest afforded at all satisfactory of future repose and equal rights under the Constitution.

Notwithstanding these are our views, there are others, we know, who think differently, and among them some of our most valued friends, whose patriotism and eminent characters place them above all suspicion. We cannot denounce, but must respect their differences of opinion, and accord to them a faithful hearing.

In such a spirit we publish the annexed paper. It is the voice, without doubt, of a respectable minority of the Southern people, and has an undeniable right to be heard through the pages of a magazine like ours, which belongs to no state nor party, but professes to be the organ of the *entire South*. In the same spirit we shall publish an answer, if it be furnished to us, from any competent source. Heaven send the South moderation, yet firmness and decision!—respect for the constituted authorities, yet regard for her own peerless *honor, rights and liberties*, in this fearful crisis!—[EDITOR.]

FOR years past it has been evident, that the greatest danger to the continuance of the Republic lay in the different views taken by the Northern and the Southern states, of the institution of domestic slavery. Since the question was first mooted, upon the admission of the State of Missouri, the elements of sectional strife have existed; for a time, apparently inactive, or nearly so, but for the last fifteen years, day

by day gathering strength; and during the last five or six years with alarming rapidity. The Southern states, during this time, have seemed not to be aware of the true state of things. They have slumbered, undisturbed, as if unconcerned, at the threatening mutterings of the storm. They have acted as if they did not observe the advancing public opinions of the North, and of the world, upon the subject, of all others the most vital to them. It is idle to deny that reprobation of their institutions is felt in foreign countries equally as strong as in some parts of our own, Our domestic policy is condemned in Europe, in terms as violent as those used by the Abolitionists of the North. We still think we can afford to laugh at the notions of the former, though at times, indignation at wanton insults is deeply excited. So we have thought we could disregard, and practically have disregarded, the evidences presented, of the deep hostility planted in the Northern breast against us, and our systems of policy.

It is true, that all have not slumbered so soundly—some from time to time have sounded the alarm; but how have they been heeded? The pages of our leading periodicals furnish proof, that the position of the South has been pondered upon; that its duty in relation to the inferior race of men in its midst, has been considered; that its duty in relation to the acquisition of territory, which has thrown the apple of discord in the midst of the country, has been sought after; the history of the great social revolutions in Europe has been explored, to aid our people and our legislators, by lessons drawn from the experience of the past; but where is the evidence that the alarms, which from time to time have been sounded, have sunk into the public mind? What system of legislation has been adopted, with a statesman-like forethought of the difficulties and duties of our position? Instead of boldly looking our situation in the face, and aided with all the lights in the power of history and calm reflection to furnish us, acting with the consideration that becomes our position, but too often mere haughty denunciations have been cast upon the heads of our maligners, and exasperating threats of resistance to their unwarrantable aggressions have been passed by our state authorities.

Time was when, by a wise consideration of our domestic concerns, the real objections to our systems could have been, to a great extent, obviated, and the feelings of those worthy of attention conciliated towards us; not that the right to dictate to us, or to interfere with our affairs, is to the slightest degree admitted. The exclusive control of the subject is a matter about which there is no room for dispute. We must maintain it, at all and every hazard. The first attempt to interfere, or even to advise, must be promptly resisted; the responsibility is upon us alone, the supreme and exclusive control must rest with us.

Very different from the admission of such a right to interfere, is the adoption by our own authority of a scheme of policy, the effect of which would be, to disarm objections; although such scheme may have had its origin in a knowledge of the existence of these objections, and its end may have been to disarm them. No institution devised or regulated by man is perfect; the defects of each are more

likely to be discovered by its enemies than its friends; and wisdom is not above taking counsel, even of an enemy. If, in matters of political concern, an error can be removed, or an advantage obtained, duty requires of the authority that controls, that that error be removed, and that advantage be secured. As individuals, and as societies, men are so connected, that they must govern themselves by principles not altogether at variance with the common sense of mankind. The common judgment of men, or the public opinion of the society with which we are brought in contact, as individuals, is a power that no man can wholly disregard. So the public opinion of the world in national affairs, is a power that sooner or later will be heard; and true statesmanship consists, not in wantonly disregarding its behests, nor in blindly following them, but in consulting its views, and so acting as to avoid a shock to its sense of right, till it can be enlightened or modified. It is in the recognition of this truth that political wisdom consists; and it is in following the counsels it suggests, that convulsions are escaped, and political security obtained.

It may not agree with our pride of independence thus to act, and probably will not accord with the feeling of the times, to divert the attention of our people to this truth; but it will certainly tend to our advantage to heed the lessons of experience, however unpalatable they may be.

No one can doubt, but at this time the public mind of the South is greatly excited, in view of the feeling displayed by the people of the Northern states on the subject of slavery. This excitement has, as it were, been brought to a head, by the discussions that have occurred in Congress upon the admission of California to the Union, and the formation of governments over the territories recently acquired from Mexico. It has now reached such a point as to render calm consideration of our position, and our duties, nearly out of the question. With many, the time for an examination of these things has passed; they have no thought for any thing but resistance; the measure, mode, or means of resistance is not even thought of, while the consequences, whether advantageous or the contrary, have scarcely received the slightest reflection. In the midst of an excitement so far advanced, it is not now proposed to discuss the course of conduct the South owes it to herself, and to her position in the eyes of the world, to adopt, in relation to her domestic institutions. Perhaps a sound policy would dictate, at this present time, that nothing in that way should be done or even said, lest it give countenance to the assumed right of other people to interfere in our affairs. Perhaps an obstinate silence on this subject is now the course of prudence. Let the North attend to its business, and we will attend to ours, is the reply we are certainly disposed to make, to the superfluous charity they exhibit towards us.

At present, the point to which the Southern mind is looking, is, how shall we act in the now state of things, and in view of the actual legislation already had upon the subject of controversy?

A series of laws have been passed by the National Legislature, embracing all the questions at issue between the two great sections

of the country. Opinions are divided upon the propriety of these laws, as a system avowedly proposed to settle the differences pending. Some, at the South, think the effort is a denial to her of her rights, a granting of the whole dispute to the North, and that in their passage Congress has been recreant in its duty to the Southern states. Others do not discover such violation of duty as would justify resistance. Probably, however, a vast majority of the people of the Southern states see, in the present aspect of affairs, serious cause of anxiety for the future, and feel that it is incumbent on the people of the South to do something to arrest aggressions, and if need be, put themselves in a position to repel them. Unfortunately we cannot all think alike on the means to be employed. Unhappily, some have allowed themselves to be stung too deeply by the reproaches and insults of the North, and violent and ultra modes of redress are openly proclaimed.

It is greatly to be feared that over-much haste is shown. We, in common with many, believe that true patriotism does not yet require the agitation of the severance of the political bonds of the country, much less their actual destruction; that great uncertainty attends the movements now sought to be made, and undeniably a great want of unanimity. If a majority adopt these violent means of redress, a proscriptive policy towards a large minority must result. Oppression and injustice will be committed by their countrymen, toward Southern men, far exceeding the injustice complained of being committed by the North. The dicta of a majority are not necessarily the decisions of a correct reason, and do not of themselves rightfully challenge obedience at the hands of a minority. No tyranny is so oppressive as that of a majority in a so-called free people—none is so easily and so readily exerted; none for which redress is harder to be found. The absence of personal responsibility, in such cases, removes the firmest barrier that has or can be erected in favor of civil liberty, and to which the most despotic monarch must pay deference. A majority, in a community such as ours, may become the most oppressive of tyrants, amenable to none, injurious alike to the minority and the country it oppresses. Symptoms of this proscriptive spirit are even now beginning to show themselves. Witness the resolutions passed by many "Southern Rights Meetings:" the possession of power by such men would be the signal for the total overthrow of a free spirit of inquiry. Liberty of conscience in political concerns would be abolished. All who differ in opinion from the majority—from those who seek the so-called security of their country, would be denounced as enemies of the South. All that prefer a continuance of the union of the states, would be stigmatized as traitors to the honor of the state. Words, sacred to patriotism, will be called into free use by the dominant majority. The minds of many will be thereby inflamed, their judgment clouded, their feelings excited: no name will be too base to be applied to an opponent that cannot think with them. It may be, no violence will be deemed unjustifiable towards those thus denounced enemies of their country.

A similar spirit, but less vindictive, would, doubtless, arise on the

part of the other side, if, after an excited struggle, power should remain with them. It would be less violent, because their policy is founded on more moderate doctrines than are announced by their opponents. Their success, too, would not result in the destruction or reorganization of the present institutions of society. Society would not by them be thrown from its regular pathway—the political machine would remain in its accustomed foundation. Its operations, doubtless, would become more vehement than usual, but not so vehement as to end in its own destruction.

In Republican governments, a majority must of necessity, for the sake of order, rule; no other test can be practically applied to decide what shall be the rule of conduct, than the number of persons that forces the adoption of the rule; if that number be a majority, generally it may be considered safe to regard the opinion correct. In ordinary times the opinion is sufficiently correct to be acted on without much misgiving. Yet there are many cases where we know the judgment of the majority is fundamentally wrong. In such cases the minority abide by that judgment, because the continued good order and regularity of society is of far more importance to them, and to the nation, than is the establishment of the correct rule in that particular case. On this basis avowedly rests the authority of all the American governments. This principle, in fact, lies at the foundation of all governments. In many it is not indeed acknowledged; in many it is dimly seen; in some again, it is seen, but the military power of the sovereign so far exceeds the strength of the subject, that practically the government is nearly independent of the governed. Though the government, even in that case, is largely influenced by the public opinion of that and the surrounding countries, it is so administered that open conflict with that opinion is, as far as possible, avoided. A direct conflict between a government the most despotic and powerful, with an unanimous deeply-seated public opinion of the nation, would end in the overthrow of the former, no matter how well organized and powerful.

Republican forms of government openly acknowledge this principle, and base their organization upon the will of the majority. Yet even in these governments there have been provided some security against the dangers of an unjust operation of the rule.

The rule, it should be observed, obtains only in the first instance, when the organic law is to be established. After the form of Government is established, the power to act, to carry on the details of legislative, judicial and executive authority, is vested in fewer and fewer hands, till the veto power is left to the sound discretion of only a single mind, aided by such lights as his knowledge and experience can command.

The object of these limitations is to secure the community against the wild acts of a mere multitude, and procure the result, as far as possible, of deliberate judgment upon the measures that are proposed to be enacted.

We have ordained, for our still greater security, written Constitutions, that are supposed to represent the decisions of the matured

judgment of the whole people in matters competent for that authority to decide, and to acknowledge the existence of those rights that are inherent in man, and beyond the authority of all earthly powers. No one doubts there exist such rights. Liberty of conscience in religious matters is one; freedom of opinion on all matters, whether of secular or religious concern, is another of these rights; and they remain, of right, undisturbed, unless they lead the holder to overt acts injurious to society: then the good order of society is felt to be of more value than is the individual right of the offending individual. For the protection of these individual and collective rights, courts of justice are organized; they are meant to secure justice, a universal right to all, against the power of a majority.

Government has been said to be of divine right, and so it is; but no particular form of government, whether monarchical or republican, can for itself claim this right as belonging to itself alone. Society has the right to select its political form of government; and it enacts laws and administers justice, by a right inherent in it. Its right to select a mode of government is under no limitation from any source; it may exercise that power, guided alone by the lights of its own reason. But this right is given to it only that it may perform a duty. Its duty is to see that the rights of each individual member are protected and enforced. If society disregards this duty, and wantonly force on the individual the observance of rules, simply because it so wills, or because the majority so will, it violates its duty, it becomes a tyranny, its right to the exercise of power is gone, and the obedience of the subject becomes a matter of expediency for him alone to decide: and in proportion as the number of men increases, whose rights are disregarded, or (in questions of policy merely) whose wishes and feelings are wantonly disregarded, the expediency of resistance increases, and revolution against the established government may ensue; or in case the majority are for resistance to an already established government, the right of the minority to continue the government will lead to a struggle, more or less violent, between the factions.

When society has once established a form of government for its well-being, a certain order of things grows up under it, and a shock to the fabric of government penetrates, and is felt in every part of the edifice; the whole frame of society is more or less convulsed. The continued preservation of that government becomes a duty upon all its subjects, till it is found that longer submission would be an evil greater than could result from its overthrow; and the hope of benefit from the change becomes almost a certainty. No evil can result from any government worse than a state of anarchy; and if anarchy must ensue upon its overthrow only, duty requires the evil government should be borne with. If benefit is certain, duty requires the change. If it be doubtful, duty requires submission, with efforts to remove the evil. If opinions of the result is divided among the citizens, duty requires that neither extreme of opinion be followed, but that a medium be followed, in which the largest possible number *may* unite, till circumstances arise that change the division of opinion *into unanimity, or nearly* so. When that exists, we can hope that

the path of real duty is found, and it may be followed cheerfully and confidently. "In multitude of counsellors there is safety," says the wise man.

These reflections furnish a rule for the guidance of the people in the present state of things at the South.

Doubtless the peculiar feelings of the South have been wantonly outraged—doubtless a settled spirit of hostility has, in more than one way, been evinced by citizens of the North; and there are there many men who are wiling to disregard the guaranties of the Constitution in favor of the slave-holding states, and proceed directly to the enactment of laws, for which no warrant can be found. They have already denied obedience to a portion of the duties enjoined upon them, and would rejoice at a change of the Constitution such as would sanction a direct interference in our internal and domestic affairs. They have even set up a higher law for their direction and guidance than the fundamental law of the land—the will of all the people; and thus wickedly attempt to absolve their conscience from obedience to a law they have sworn to protect and defend. These facts present matters for serious consideration, and if the Southern people could be satisfied that the people of the North all felt alike in these respects, it would become the South at once to take bold steps to secure themselves against the threatened aggressions. A knowledge of the existence of these things in the free states, justifies them in preparing to take those steps. Thus far, probably, all men at the South can willingly go.

But here the division begins. Many hope, and are willing to believe, that these things can truly be averred of comparatively a small portion of the Northern people. Others think and assert, that the whole body is infected, and justice cannot be expected at their hands—that they will proceed from their present course to a still worse, and cease only with our entire destruction. These aver that the Constitution has already been broken, and our rights trampled upon. Those do not so regard the acts complained of, but on the contrary, assert they can see in them no violation of the Constitution; that though some parts of the recent legislation of Congress are highly objectionable to their notions of propriety, they were still within the power of Congress to enact, and form parts of a system, which was adopted avowedly to conciliate the honest prejudices of the two great sections of the country, and as such should be acknowledged.

The former are for immediate secession; for throwing off all connection with those they deem their oppressors, take their rights in their own hands, and defend, if need be, their new position, at the point of the sword. The latter think the forms of the Constitution are yet sufficient to their defence; that acts of oppression have not yet been committed that would justify extreme measures, and still look fondly to the union of all the states, as the common protector of all.

Whichever of these parties may be right, they are both, in the main, beyond doubt, honest in the expression of their opinions; both patriotic; and each deems the course it recommends the one proper to be pursued.

These parties nevertheless exist, and they are each preparing to enlist as many of the people as they can in their favor. Words of patriotism, glowing imaginations, and high-wrought declamation, will not be wanting to either, and each will have some foundation for its assertions. The scene depicted may still be true, though the scene itself changes with the changing position of the observer.

The existence of these parties not only show a want of unanimity among our people, but that very division of sentiment indicates the course that will eventually be pursued by the people themselves. Entire unanimity of belief, where room has been left for inquiry, argues, and in general may be said to establish, the truth of that belief. For no institution ever yet generally existed among mankind, that did not have some portion of truth at its foundation; and in proportion to the degree of unanimity an opinion receives, so is the probability of its correctness, where means of investigation have been afforded. Where conflicts of opinion have occurred, the result has been, events have finally settled in a course between the two, and it will incline to the one side or the other, according to the relative numerical strength and force of those supporting the opinions respectively. Like an object acted upon by two mechanical forces, it pursues a line marked by the two jointly. These remarks are particularly applicable to questions of political concern, where the rule of conduct is prescribed according to the number of voices, and they find examples in the histories of all revolutions. The result is, in fact, a compromise of opinions; though when the passions of men are aroused, violent conflicts, great oppressions, and dire calamities often intervene between the beginning and the end. Success may apparently cheer each side: it is but temporary; the conflict was necessary to satisfy men that neither could wholly prevail. Calamities were necessary to teach them the folly of resorting to brute force to establish political opinions.

History is said to be philosophy teaching by example. Cannot men now learn the philosophy from the example, without furnishing another example from their own history? Cannot we of the South now avoid the dangers, that would certainly ensue, were we to continue divided? Some of these evils have already been mentioned—the evils of oppression and injustice committed upon our own citizens—of proscription for political sentiments—disregard of the duties of justice and charity—evils that may be wofully increased, if acts of violence be committed; leading to civil war at home, and the intervention of neighboring powers in our domestic quarrels.

Cannot we of the South take measures to find what is the path of conduct that the common sense of the whole country would point to, as the one the wants of the case demanded should be pursued? Once found, there is little difficulty or danger in following it. The united, peaceful course of a great people, moving firmly to the attainment of a great national object, would carry with it a degree of moral force, far exceeding in influence and effect all that could be expected from a tumultuous outbreak of the passions. Its existence would be the certain evidence of the success that must attend it.

ART. II.—ON THE DISADVANTAGES OF WATER.

The poet Willis, in his admirable play of "Tortesa the Usurer," makes one of his characters anathematize "water," because, ever since the world was drowned by the deluge, it had tasted of sinners. And in real life we have heard of the New-Hampshire farmer, who being appealed to by a temperance orator to bear witness to the virtues of water, replied very gravely, that it was a very good thing for soiled linen, but when there arose a question of steady drink, he voted for *rum!* Certain it is, that too much water, like too much turkey at Christmas time, has its practical disadvantages.

Charles Lamb's well known witticism, that Hydropathy was worthy of attention from its antiquity—it having been in use during Noah's time—was but an intensified horror of too much water. Its blessings are great, but its disadvantages are not to be lightly summed up; and hereon we drop our inkstand by way of a clincher.

Ask the mummies now carried away from the shadow of their country,—pyramids into the recesses of village and city museums,—whether the Nile they worshipped so gratefully was not sometimes in their mortal knowledge a decided nuisance; whether rheumatisms and chills and fevers did not sometimes interfere with their mortal appetite for rice? Ask of the returned Arctic voyager on shore, whether he does not wish to make one of a party to view the Falls of Montmorenci in mid-winter? Ask the captain of a Canton packet to purchase a panorama of the Atlantic Ocean? Summon to your library the shade of Sidney Smith, and inquire of him whether or no Mrs. Partington, who combated the Atlantic with a broom, was not the widow of an ex-keeper of the Eddystone light-house? My word for it (the rain coming down in torrents as I write, and a painting of a shipwreck staring me in the face from over the mantel-piece opposite) the mummy, the voyagers, and the shade of the humorist, would shake their heads ominously at the water pitcher by the reader's elbow, and mutter, "all is not gold that glitters."

We may laugh at the sayings of the dramatists, and of the rum-drinker before quoted; but who shall positively deny that the first was wrong, or the latter illiberal? I never could find that Adam, and Cain, and Abel drank water, or worshiped it as the greatest blessing upon earth. Cain set out to paddle his own family canoe, it is true, but what ancient geographer points out the lake of his retributive travel? Was there any water before the flood? Did not the deriders of Noah mock his ark because they could not understand its use? The spies praised a land flowing with milk and honey, not with water and bull-frogs!

Water has been deified too long. The Dagon must topple from its shrine, because the Philistines of utilitarianism have raised up an higher, in the substances of India-rubber and gutta-percha: topple from its shrine of universal practicability, I mean the most. And as children on the sea-cliff, readers may have a fling at it.

Water boils one's potatoes, it is true; but your true cook roasts

and fries them, or forms into *croquettes*. (A thousand blessings, *en passant*, to the Yankee who invented the steaming of vegetables as a means of cooking them.) Water gives us a speed of fifty miles the hour on rail-roads, when a pow-wow of pine sticks smoke their pipes beneath it; but how many grave-stones rise into the air over scalded remains! Water floats your ships and damages your dry goods. Water draws your cup of Bohea, but it weakens your milk. It drives us to the expense of pilot-coats, the buying of umbrellas "for another's use," the disfiguring ankles with India-rubber over-shoes, and makes us seek refuge in Kellinger's liniment and Mrs. Jervis' cold candy.

My good friend Robert Nosey was one of the kind who never could find *any* disadvantage in water. He had been born in a room, the east window of which looked out upon a mill-dam; and at the tender age of five he had been out "spearing" killy-fish in the neighboring brook, with his grandmother's largest knitting needle. When he grew up into man's estate he was as fond of water as ever, and daily took his sponge-bath. One New Year's Day (we were boarding together as bachelors, and his sleeping apartment was over mine) a friend presented him with a portable shower-bath, of an improved kind, just patented. I saw it when "on its winding way" up to his dormitory, and it looked as much like the barrel of a gigantic telescope covered with muslin as any thing. A height of twelve feet; a shape round as a solid circle; a basin at the top, which would hold three or four gallons of fluid; a pump at the side to force these gallons upwards; a string to precipitate the water downwards when pulled; and muslin curtains lined with oil-skin inside, behind which one might retire in modest security, like a Circassian beauty in a harem tent.

Of course, the very morning succeeding the day of the present, the thing has to be tried; the mid-winter luxury of a shower-bath, under the auspices of a new patent, to be indulged in! Nosey could talk of little else at supper, than his new shower-bath; "he was sure he never would have cold feet now, nor rheumatism; he would soon take an affectionate farewell of pilot cloth, and be as inured to the changes of weather as an Osage savage," etc., etc.; and loud and hearty were the congratulations from all his fellow boarders, including a Mrs. Griffin, whose axioms of health had relation to the taking of blue pills, (centennial preservers, as she termed them,) and held all other remedies for the keeping of sound health in perfect contempt. But *she* could not resist such a shower-bath,—a new patent!

The next morning I was awakened about daylight by a tremendous bump on the floor (echoed through the ceiling) of the room above me—of a bump as if the floor yet above that had come down on a sparring match with its neighbor, and was giving it to him right and left, in hearty good earnest, with an armful of rafters to spare. I listened, and heard a stifled shriek, followed by another bump.

Grasping a pair of drawers, and "legging" into them as I went along in search of humanity in distress—to bound up stairs and enter Nosey's room, was but the work of an instant; and opening the

door, what a spectacle was presented! All I remember at first was, rushing to a trunk hard by, and rolling over its brass nails in an agony of laughter.

On the floor by the window lay my water-loving friend; his head and shoulders peeping from out the muslin curtains of his overset shower-bath, like the peak and jagged sides of a mountain above a thin veil of mist. Drops of water were coming from his hair; his gaze was rueful in the extreme; and the floor was a miniature Bay of Biscay, with strong symptoms, in one corner, of a patent boot-jack swimming off in fine style.

"Really, Fred, this is unkind," cried Bob to me, "making sport of misery—stop your laughing and help me up."

I begged his pardon, and extricated him from his Marius-like situation among the ruins, (I'm sure he looked as forlorn as the exiled Roman does in the Art Union plate!)

He scrambled between the sheets of his bed, and shivering all over, pointed to the bath.

I raised it.

"Deuce take the horrid thing!" he commenced; "and this is my reward for laying awake nearly all night, waiting for the day-light to come, and thinking of the luxury awaiting me. Up I got a quarter-hour since;—John had just knocked at the door with his two pails of water, (on my soul I believe the rascal had been icing them.) In shorter time than I tell of it I pumped the water into the basin; got inside; adjusted the curtains tightly; and—rash man that I was—pulled the string with a jerk." Here he shivered all over, like a captive prince is supposed to shake in ballads and choice poetry, when the fetters are being placed upon him; and then continued, "Down came the water upon me like a torrent from Caucasus; it was as if I had been struck with an iceberg, and, like a gallant ship, was going to pieces! Without looking well for the opening in the curtains, I made a spring in my desperation—springing against the curtains, and oversetting the deuced machine, while I fell with it."

I was again on the trunk, rolling with laughter, and my friend swearing again at my unfeeling habit. Of course, at breakfast time, everybody (although ignorant of Bob's mishap) was inquiring about the bath.

"I shall have to send it away," answered its owner, very dryly; "the patent is a failure, *for it leaks*." It was fortunate that a piece of omelet stuck in my throat at this juncture and stifled my laughter, or the *joke* might have leaked out as well as the water.

From this it may be supposed, that my friend Nosey took an everlasting disgust to water in general, and shower-baths in particular. But he could not surrender the former, although he openly denounced the latter. It became a theory with him that cold bathing was highly prejudicial to the bodily economy of man. He now swore by *warm* baths—vapor baths—sulphur baths, &c. &c.

The mercantile houses we were connected with sent us one spring to England on commercial business. We went by packet—Bob Nosey and I; and the fourth day out, my water-loving friend caught

a severe cold while trolling over the poop with a bit of salt pork, in hopes to catch a shark. The cold was a kind of fish he did not like, and he bethought him of his great remedy, the vapor-bath. But this, in a vessel at sea, seemed as impossible of attainment as shooting marbles on a treadmill. However, "Bob" was never disconcerted at trifles. Here was he going about the cabin, wheezing and coughing like a fat dog; a vapor-bath would cure him, and a vapor-bath he would have! We all laughed at him; but he begged us to suspend judgment, and went out for deliberation, and was seen in a few minutes deep in consultation with the cook.

Keeping within "social hall," as the narrow passage-way from the deck to the cabin was called, we had a good look out upon his operations. He had rolled out an empty water-cask, and was cutting out a hole in the "head" of it. Presently he jumped into the cask and commenced disrobing; tossing his clothes out upon the forecastle hatchway. Forward came the cook; while some of the sailors, idling in the vicinity, looked on in strange amazement, as our friend looked upon them in turn, with gaze expressive of interested satisfaction. The cook was heading his body in, *sans* the head, as if he were a Chinese malefactor about to undergo the tub punishment. It was clear now that the hole in the head was to keep his neck in place, and keep down the vapor from his mouth and nose.

But how was that to get in?

Next came the cook, bringing one of the immense teakettles of the ship!

Selecting a small cask, (it was evident he was acting implicitly under instructions the while,) the cook sat the kettle upon it, and proceeded to insert the nozzle of the spout well through the bung-hole of the cask. The water was boiling hot, and the moment the steam touched "Bob" in a tender place, there arose over the still ocean a cry, which must have startled the Nautilus in its frail boat miles and miles away!

The man at the wheel was in a position to well observe the whole thing; and what wonder if his attention was so distracted from his duty, that he suffered the ship for a moment to come broadside to the sea. It was just the instant that the steam was scalding our poor friend; and a mountain wave from the sea-trough plunged over the bows of the ship like another Niagara—lifting up the cask with poor Bob Nosey in it, as if it were a mere bottle of which his head was the stopper.

And over the bulwarks went cask, Bob and all. The look when the steam touched him—the look in the old time when happened his shower-bath mishap, were nothing to that now seen—and seen, meteor-like, for an instant on his countenance, as he disappeared over the side.

"'Bout ship!" vociferated the mate, who had been eying the manœuvre, thus disastrously terminated by the negligence of the helmsman.

And "'bout ship" it was, as a dozen men, at a look from the captain, who rushed out, followed by all of us, sprang to the boats.

Looking out from the quarter-deck, we saw the cask plunging and bobbing about in the waves. Fortunately the sea was not very high, and the water running into the bung-hole weighted the lower end of the cask, and enabled Bob to keep in a perpendicular position. Under other circumstances, it would have been a ludicrous sight!

The boat's crew soon came up to him; unheaded him; dragged him out, and brought him on board more dead than alive.

Ever afterwards he eschewed vapor-baths, as he had tabooed and anathematized shower-baths. But not the steaming nor the briny dip he had in his marine cask, &c., could cure him of his love for water. By and by he got the idea that his liver was affected, and was persuaded to enter an hydropathic hospital, where he was ducked and played the *douce* with, and rolled up in wet sheets and flannel counterpanes, and pounded and bent, until it became a matter of doubt whether he was to be left with any liver at all—let alone an inflamed one!

I have not heard from him this many a day. He is said to have traveled to the Spas at Baden-Baden; to have translated Sir Edward Bulwer Lytton's tract on the Water Cure into very readable Russian; and is more than suspected to be the author of a Life of Preissnitz, that has been published anonymously.

But wherever he is, and if chancing to meet this little essay, should call all these mishaps to mind, I conjure him to fill a glass, as I do, at parting with the reader, in the most fruity of "Dudley Bean's" port wine, to the "DISADVANTAGES OF WATER."

ART. III.—SUPPOSITITIOUS REVIEWS.

TIERRA DE GUERRA.—NO. III.

IT is no part of the design of these papers to follow our Anglo-Spanish author through the sometimes dull details of his book; but before quoting the passages we have penciled, it would be as well to show what sort of a prison he was literally caged in for the time, with (subsequent) permission to go sight-seeing under the ciceronage of a very unprepossessing native.

"The room was quite empty, but at the farther end appeared another door, on pushing which I discovered my prison, whether by design or not, was less contracted than I had supposed. A few stone steps led to a terrace, below which appeared another, neglected in culture, but absolutely loaded with flowers, from the gorgeous scarlet blossoms of several species of cactus, to the faint blue balls of the mimosa. The terraces, enclosed by strong network, had formed an aviary on a grand scale; there were traces of walks among the dwarfed trees, and tracing one of these to its termination, through the open screen, a broad square or court was visible, with the great teocalli close at hand. The setting sun shone full on the front and side, and I saw distinctly the lineaments of the hideous idol seated in a crouching

posture, the mouth open and tongue lolling out, and on the summit a small structure like a dwarfish temple. During the night I frequently heard the sound of a horn, and a voice repeat a few unknown words in the direction of this temple; and the sonorous call falling from aloft through the stillness of the dark hours, enhanced the solemnity attaching to the large deserted building in which I was immured: these criers were the teopixqui (priests) who announced the passing time, from sunset to sunrise."

And again—"A strong wall formed one side of the cage, and the three others were enclosed by the copper net, which I found, on approaching, to be not as I had at first supposed of mere wire, but stout rods three or four inches apart. None but large birds could have been confined here, and this conjecture was confirmed by a gauze-like screen, visible at the opposite extremity of the palace; the intermediate space was occupied by a wilderness of tropical flowering and fruit-bearing plants; the mildness of the climate in this region, owing to its sheltered position and nearness to the equator, inducing successive vegetation, so that ripe fruits and young blossoms repeatedly load a single branch. On the third side the view was contracted by a thick grove of wide-spreading trees, and the fourth commanded the broad area in front of the teocalli; in the full light of day this last exhibited numerous details, which had escaped my attention the preceding afternoon. The base of the structure was little more than one hundred yards distant, the intervening court appearing unevenly divided by parallel walls scarcely hip high, extending from the foot of the first slope to the belt of trees forming a boundary on two sides; the teocalli itself resembled a steep pyramid, composed not of series of steps, but of six terraces, of smaller diameter and greater altitude as they approached the summit, stuccoed white externally, and diversified by two rows of hieroglyphics painted on the front, and a shallow trench, which ran from the feet of the idol to the plain, descending from steep to steep in a straight line. This idol was of enormous bulk, and could hardly have been chiselled from a single block, for although squatting on its hams on the fourth platform from the bottom, its head was nearly on a level with the next above, a height of perhaps forty feet; the face of the image was a hideous imitation of the human countenance, the eyes protruding, jaws half opened, and the limbs painted of a tawny green. Immediately above the monster's head, on the terrace, was a large altar, between the surface of which and the mouth of the former, a communication existed; and still higher, crowning the whole, appeared the fane or porch, whence issued the sound of horns at night. On gazing intently, I fancied I discerned a light flame at times in the last mentioned structure, which was open only towards the south, the teocalli facing the cardinal points, and this, as I subsequently learnt, was the sacred fire kept continually burning.

Not a living creature appeared during the morning, except a priest or two on the summit of the pyramid, who must have ascended by steps in the rear; and a few birds in the neighboring garden, some of whom occasionally descended to the stranger's cage, flitted from branch to branch, and then out into the free space again, with an ease tantalizing

to a prisoner; among them were several varieties of brilliant humming-birds, so tame that they scarce attempted to avoid my hand while hovering over a honey-flower. I caught them frequently, and held them like a jewel between the finger and thumb, while examining their delicate plumage, and restored them to liberty again, when they would seek the nearest cluster of blossoms, not at all disturbed by their brief bondage.

The cicerone before referred to, was called Atloe; and for reasons which afterwards appeared, inveigled our author into a sort of sight-seeing rather trying to Saxon nerves. The festival of the serpent woman is horrible enough to give one the nightmare.

"*Schoupal*, the girl," cried Atloe, entering abruptly some days after, with a face of savage exultation.

"The *Schoupal?*" said I, interrogatively.

"Yes, yes, the little fool that let them go on the other side of the Sierra. But the chief of her village has given her up to pacify his powerful neighbors, who had taken her accordingly to sacrifice to *Quitaztdi*, the serpent woman, and that very night the festival would be kept."

I was shocked and distressed at this intelligence; the poor girl's liveliness and friendly disposition had at the first made a favorable impression, which resulted in hearty gratitude, when, unsolicited, she had rescued us from certain death; and now, for the first time, I bitterly regretted an expedition commenced at the cost of innocent blood.

"Ahti—you can go," Atloe said, eyeing me keenly. "It is a sight worth seeing." And our author did go; but we prefer to omit his prosy reasons for becoming a spectator, as well as the frightful details he gives of the revels themselves. Once afterward he was forcibly a witness to a somewhat similar orgie, and that alone should suffice to gratify all lovers of the strange and horrible. But before this, an attempt at escape is so full of adventure, we cannot slight the passage in immediate connection as it stands, with his subsequent lot. For all dry descriptions of customs, costumes, and the like, we refer the reader here, as elsewhere, to the book itself. Our object is to draw merely a few readable papers from the unknown pamphlet.

"One afternoon, Atloe received some intelligence which seemed to disconcert him, and coming to me, said, 'that the Teocacixi was expected in a few hours, and I must at once return to my quarters, as it was necessary to have the inner door plastered over before he entered the palace. I solicited, without success, to be allowed my usual freedom until the pageant was over, but my *otahl* only replied doggedly in the negative, adding, that it was not possible to say when smiths could be sent to set up the new door in the wires, and I must consequently go in before the old was irremediably closed. The whole bearing of the man had been moody of late, and it seemed to me he only attended my steps from some evil motive, to form an opinion from the suppressed malice I more than once detected in his look and voice. As there was no help for it, I reluctantly returned with

him, and found masons already waiting at my door to begin their work, which they did as quickly as I entered. For some days past I had been conducted in and out by a small door at the nearer end of the corridor, instead of, as formerly, down half the length of the latter, and through the grand portal in front; but the hasty glance I was enabled to cast upwards in crossing, showed that colored mats had been spread over a great portion of the stone floor, and that benches and low tables of carved wood, inlaid with gold, upon which were golden vases containing flowering plants, were scattered over the length of the promenade. I was now curious to see what changes had been made in the gardens and grounds adjoining two sides of my cage, and endeavored to force up a corner of the screen; but the matting was of such strength that I failed even to make a hole large enough to apply the eye to, unassisted as I was by any implement. At length, at the approach of evening, two men, carrying between them a small metal gate, appeared on the outer side of the bars, and fell to work with their implements to cut a sufficient opening; they worked hard, but in utter silence, and paid no attention to the few questions I could ask in their tongue. Such an opportunity might not occur again, and I was sorely tempted to saunter near, choose my time, and by well planted and unlooked for blows, overthrow the workmen, and so escape through the gap; but the appearance of *teopixquis* on the summit of the teocalli, and the daylight still remaining, checked my rising inclination rather than the mere want of weapons of any kind, not excepting even a billet of wood. I was restless nevertheless in spite of my desire to avoid all suspicion, and from a little distance watched keenly every action, praying that the work might be protracted until after night, in which case I resolved, at every hazard, to make one bold attempt.

Meantime, a stir was discernible among the *teopixquis*, and numerous drums, beaten on the teocalli, were immediately answered by the rattling of others, joined to a jingling of bells, and droning of some manner of wind instruments from the front of the palace. These sounds, and the distant shouts, heralded, as I supposed, the approach of the king; a surmise confirmed soon after by the descent of a long procession of the *teopixquis* bearing torches, from their elevation, and advancing towards the latter point. The smiths worked harder than ever, but in a few minutes it became so dark that one of them was compelled to hasten away for a light—the gate now only wanting hinges to render it complete, being first leaned up against the opening, and the swarthy naked back of the remaining laborer braced against it to prevent its falling; the entire carelessness of the position showed, that by them certainly no suspicion was entertained of my desire to be at large, an opinion not to be wondered at, since they may have seen me daily passing into the houses of their superiors, without the least show of restraint; and possibly the sturdy owner of the back added to this a contemptuous opinion of the amount of muscle contained in my slender figure, contrasted with his own brawny limbs. However that might have been, I longed for perfect liberty again, and could scarce control my impatience until the other was

sufficiently far to prevent his ear being caught by the noise of the struggle. To have thrust the grating aside, and in a hand-to-hand encounter, endeavored to gain the mastery, would have evinced foolhardiness, to say the least of it, where the weapons, for as such most of their tools would very well have served, were wholly in the possession of the assailed party, and a shout could bring a throng to the spot; I consequently adopted a more vigorous method of accomplishing my purpose. Running rapidly but lightly for some yards, I threw my whole weight against the gate, at the moment that the smith had partly straightened himself up to look over his shoulder, his attention being caught by my quick footsteps; down he went headlong, the heavy grating above, and I on the upper surface of that; and although the shock must have been enough to stun an ox, on the instant he raised an outcry, which I stopped, before it had more than unclosed his lips, with a blow from an implement my hand fell upon, I scarce know how.

I rose to my feet somewhat shaken myself, and looked in the direction of the palace front, but nothing was discernible save a glare of torches over the intervening walls and trees, accompanied by a clamor, vocal and instrumental, sufficient to have drowned a shout from this distance, had the smith succeeded in giving one; the latter lay either dead or senseless, and without stopping to learn which, I walked as rapidly as the starlight would permit, overleaped the low boundary of the wooded grounds attached to the royal buildings, and crossed diagonally among the trees, the better to mislead the first of the pursuit. A square and street lay before, leading through the quarter of the *coamatlis;* but there was no help for it, as to avoid these a circuit of nearly half a mile not free from similar risk of encounters, was the only alternative; fortunately I still wore my usual native costume, and depending on the mantle and dim light to constitute my disguise, I moved along at a moderate pace, although my pulse was beating at fever heat with eagerness and excitement. I met several stragglers on their way to witness the arrival of the *Teocacixi*, and more than one called out to know if he had yet come; but although I understood their questions, I did not venture to utter a Tepecohuatlan word for fear of detection, and passed by, bending my face down as if lost in thought. One, the last I encountered, was however not so easily to be baffled, and after hailing me by some name, probably mistaking my figure for that of an acquaintance, made up to me, when I fairly took to my heels, the houses of the *coamatlis* being just then all passed, and heard my new friend letting fly from a distance a string of epithets for my exclusive benefit. There were no huts of the working classes on this side of the town, and almost immediately in the rear of the last habitation, I struck into a tract of land of the same rugged, sterile nature, as far as could be distinguished, as that we had crossed on the route to the *Tlamacazcalli*. The dwarfed growth was so dense in places, that I could not see an arm-length ahead, and this, with the rough character of the surface, rendered my progress exceedingly slow; but the ascent commenced abruptly, and inspired me with the hope that I was at the

foot of the low dividing sierra, and once the top was attained, would find no difficulty in descending to the great plain on the farther side. In this I discovered I was partly right, for after half an hour's tedious clambering, I found, to my dismay, a perpendicular wall of rock in front, and worse still, that I had been mounting in the bed of a chasm which here terminated, the steep sides approaching within reach on either hand. There was only one manner of remedying the mischance, by retracing my steps; and this I did until the chasm opened into a ravine, when I groped my way through a thicket, the thorns of which lacerated my hands and tore my native costume to shreds. I pushed on, however, commonly in a line parallel with the base of the range, as I judged that the surest method of finding a gap if any existed; and in case none was to be found, I determined, rather than turn back, to continue in the same course, even as far as the monastery itself. The latter place, I concluded, could be reached at least some time during the approaching day, and once in sight, I designed to lie concealed until the coming on of night suffered me to gain the road descried from the observatory, undetected, and so to find an easy descent to the plain.

As I alternately walked and climbed, my face was frequently turned towards the city below, over which hung a halo of light, and from the midst arose a hum of voices, interrupted by occasional shouts and bursts of wild music. That my flight had been discovered, and immediate measures taken to frustrate my plans, I afterwards learned, but at the time I could detect not the slightest indications of pursuit: everything around was quiet, and except the lizards, or small reptiles of some sort, which abounded and rustled through the leaves on all sides, whenever I forced my way into a thicket, and two or three hares startled from among the rocks, nothing possessing life crossed my path. As the night wore on, the fatigue consequent upon climbing a hill-side so rugged as that I was traversing in the dark, and after long inaction, began to be felt; and at last, bewildered by the numerous turns I had made, and uncertain of the right direction in which to advance, I sat down in a hollow within a group of jutting rocks to rest, but overcome by weariness, fell fast asleep, and so continued until dawn. As soon as I awoke, I began to look about me to discover my whereabouts, and reproached myself angrily for the rashness of the act; once recaptured, from what I had already, and under favorable circumstances, experienced, I could entertain little hope of again eluding the vigilance of my keepers. I was still more conscious of the folly of yielding to drowsiness, when between the crevices of my pile of stones I saw, not twenty yards off, several huts, such as the Tepecohuatlans who cultivate the lands inhabit; a sturdy class of the people, whom it would be a hopeless matter to endeavor to baffle on their own mountains. I had wandered, unaware, into the middle of one of their fields, the boulders among which I had taken refuge being quite surrounded by patches of maize and tobacco. As yet there was no sign of life about the premises, and supposing it not unlikely they too had visited the city the night before and returned late, I hastened to place myself again under cover, before my

retreat should be cut off by any awaking; accordingly, keeping my late shelter as much as possible in the line of the huts, I crept up the slope and soon breathed more freely out of immediate danger.

Not far from this place I fell into a foot-path leading through a defile, at the termination of which I hoped to find the passage I was in search of; the only thing to be dreaded was a chance meeting with any of the Tepecohuatlans, but I still held in my hand the tool which the evening before had done me good service, and with it I was resolved to attack any opposing odds, the name given me, "Quezatequitl," as already shown, acting as a more effectual safeguard of my life than a suit of armor. I had occasion to test both before walking the fourth of a mile farther, for in a place where the ravine narrowed and was overhung by crags, the noise of a pebble falling as if loosened from above by a stealthy foot, called my attention to the rear, and discovered a party of *Ichcahuepilli* (cuirassiers) who must have before occupied the heights, filling the passage.

As quickly as they saw they were detected, they started in full cry and run; but as I knew the summit could not be far distant, I had no fear of being overtaken with a start of at least seventy yards, and reinvigorated by my long slumbers; nevertheless, it was somewhat startling to hear an answering shout from the very quarter I aimed to reach: but there was no time for debating a choice of evils, and in another minute my advance was opposed by a second body of soldiers, while a rapid glance upwards showed the heights held by others swinging nets, which the swiftness of my pace alone deterred them from throwing with accuracy; indeed, as I ran, several dropped before and behind with a whizzing noise, and had I not been so far below, the second or third fling would have sooner terminated the race. Possessing, as I did, a sort of charmed person, I did not slacken my speed on account of those in front, but resolutely charged the whole throng, crying out meanwhile words which had been acquired piecemeal, carefully put together, and practised to employ in the event of an emergency like the present.

"*Queza-tequitl ine—Tonca! ae-miecachuey.*" (I belong to the Quezalé—beware, lest you harm me!)—paralyzed the arms of the Tepecohuatlans; but throwing themselves upon me as I penetrated their midst, they endeavored, by sheer force of numbers, to make me prisoner; but the idea of being borne back to witness another of their hateful sacrifices was intolerable, and I dealt blows right and left with certainly no weak arm. My weapon was in shape similar to a chisel, only that one edge was sharpened half way up from the square end, the material copper, tipped with flint, and from the weight produced hideous gashes in the visages upon which the keen extremity descended; except for the narrowness of sweep, I know of no preferable weapon in a desperate rencontre. Sometimes I was obliged to sever the sinews of a wrist before a determined grasp could be broken, but generally my hacks were directed against the bared breast and face. Slight as are these details of the most violent struggle it has ever been my ill fate to engage in, I fear there are not wanting persons who will judge as hastily as harshly of such apparent butchery, for

I confess not the slightest attempt was made on my life after the utterance of the talismanic words; but the horrors awaiting my recapture, the ultimate uncertainty of my fate, and the fact that it was owing to no native clemency that I received hurt from the hands of none of the ferocious sharers in the melee, must all be borne in mind, and I am confident any man of candor, placing himself in my position, will fully justify my deeds. Be that as it may, in far less time than the narrative consumes, I was through and free, and without a scratch; in another instant I turned an angle of the rock, and found myself on the summit, in sight of the broad valley and far glittering lake, and in contact with a parapet wall not higher than the breast, but upon which I had come so suddenly that there was no space to leap. I quickly recoiled a step, and had already risen from the ground in the act of vaulting over, when, slight as the pause was, a fatal moment of inaction being presented, a net dropped around my head like a cloud, and, blinded, entangled, yet carried forward by the impetus of the bound, I was dashed against the wall, and fell back on the inner side, more than half stunned.

My senses, however, were sufficiently alive to leave an indistinct resolution to be free, omnipotent, and I had already cut a rent in the meshes, when pounced upon by the excited pursuers, in whose hands, fast bound, bleeding from the mouth and fingers, which last had been cut by the chisel in the fall, and treated as roughly as the preservation of life would allow, I was borne back, and towards mid-day thrown into the former prison, the door leading into the aviary being closed also in the end, so as to limit me to the single apartment. To this I paid no regard at the time, for, faint and feverish from intolerable thirst and blood lost while returning, I laid stretched out upon the floor, and could think of nothing but my pains and bruises, and the mischance which had occasioned them all.

ART. IV.—MISSISSIPPI VALLEY.

REMARKS ON THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE RIVER MISSISSIPPI.

Bars or shoals are the result of some natural or incidental defect in the channel of a river; natural, as when caused by geological obstruction in its bed; incidental, as when caused by obstructions incidental in their locality, or when they are the legitimate result of causes that have grown out of the condition of the river itself. When natural, they could not have been prevented, because they existed always; when incidental, they might have been prevented, because, having originated in causes that grew out of the condition of the river, there was a time when they did not exist. In either case they can be removed.

Wherever shoals are formed, they can only be removed permanently, by removing the cause; for, if the shoal itself be removed, *the cause* still remaining, it commences reforming immediately; and

in a very short time, a shoal will be found occupying the same position as the one removed. If they are the result of any geological obstruction, that obstruction must be removed. If produced by any causes arising out of the condition of the river, the cause must be removed by altering that condition that gave rise to them.

The causes of the existence of shoals in the bed of a river, are the extension of the cross-section of the stream beyond its normal breadth, and for this reason we find also generally shoals where the current passes diagonally across the bed from one concave shore to another, or where the river is divided by a sand-bank or island. If the breadth of the current be increased, its depth must be diminished, in order to equalize the sectional area, which the river is able to keep open. In either of the above cases, as in all cases of shoals formed by incidental causes, the cause being removed, the river removes the effect, and relieves itself. The water of a river, if kept in a regular, uniform channel, of a normal breadth, will always keep it clear of shoals. To assert that the same volume and velocity that forced their way, and dug a channel for themselves from the mountains to the sea, (provided the one be not dissipated, the other diminished, and the action of both partially neutralized,) could not remove a few feet of sand that obstruct their channel, would be an absurdity, and a contradiction of the principles of Hydrodynamics.

A shoal in the channel of a river is sometimes merely temporary and accidental: the last flood produced it, and the next may sweep it away. Where, however, it continues permanently fixed, and subject to very little change from the action of high or low water, it is the result of some regularly and steadily-acting cause, or in some instances, to speak more correctly, it owes its existence to the diversion and dissipation of the power that could have removed it.

The bar at the mouth of the Mississippi is of this last character. It is an immense accumulation of mud and sand in the mouth of the river, 100 or 120 feet higher than the bottom of the river at New-Orleans. It has a depth of 12 feet of water on it, which has continued for years without any material change. This accumulation of sedimentary matter is the result of certain causes which, for as many years back as we have any information, must have combined to form it and keep it there. It is a remarkable fact, however, that, no matter how the river may swell with floods, or the gulf be agitated by storms, the average depth of water on the bar remains the same. This is a positive proof that there is a fixed cause, or combination of causes, which has produced it; and that, while the storms from the Gulf do not add to it, neither can the floods of the river remove it, in the present condition of its channel. It is a proof also, if any were wanted, that any temporary removal of that bar, by dredging operations, or otherwise, while those causes still remained to reform it, would be a mere waste of time, labor and money.

The bar owes its existence to the fact, that the scouring power of the river is nearly exhausted before it reaches the gulf, by the divisions of its volume into so many passes and innumerable bayous, while it is still further checked by the resistance offered to it by the

dead-water of the Gulf, and by its too great and unnecessary expansion near the mouth.

The volume of water in the river which by its weight and velocity at New-Orleans makes a channel of upwards of 130 feet deep, is drained of a portion of its power before it reaches the passes, where it is divided between the several channels that run towards the Gulf. Yet the quantity that enters the passes is still further divided by the bayous, or lateral outlets, which run off on either side, dissipating its strength, and almost entirely destroying the velocity and power of the current, until enough only is left to keep 12 feet of water on the bar. Were the same volume of water that at New-Orleans makes a channel of 130 feet deep, kept undivided until it reached the Gulf, so that its whole power might remain concentrated, the bar would be swept away far into the Gulf; to harmless distance. No bar could stand before the volume and velocity of the Mississippi river, if the first were not divided, the latter diminished, and the power of both broken before it reaches the Gulf.

The resistance of the dead-water of the Gulf is another agent in keeping the bar at the mouth of the Mississippi. This, when opposed to the divided volume, and almost exhausted velocity of the current, checks it still further, and causes a sufficient deposit of sedimentary matter to maintain the bar in its present condition, which, were it not for that resistance, even the present diminished volume and velocity of the water in the passes would partially wash away. The fact that the resistance of the water in the Gulf, passive or active, has not been sufficient to increase the bar, and entirely close up the mouth of any of the principal passes, shows clearly, that the water of the river that flows through the mouths of the passes, even with its divided volume and diminished velocity, still retains power enough to neutralize that resistance. The conclusion is therefore irresistible, that the power of the entire volume of water in the river, if kept united, and its velocity undiminished, would so far exceed that resistance, as not only to sweep away the bar, but to render its reformation impossible.

The expanse at the mouth is another agent in causing the bar. This expanse is due to the want of proper protection to the banks or sides of the channel, which are subject to the action of the upland waters, and the tides caused by the winds, whose successive abrasion waste the banks and enlarge the mouth.

The waters of the Gulf, when agitated by southerly winds, which propel them into the mouth of the pass, will force their way along the banks, where they meet with less resistance than in the mid-channel. This will produce the middle ground or sand-bank, and the two lateral channels, which are designated in the mouth of the South-West Pass by the pilots as the East and West Pass. Between these two lateral channels eddies are formed, which cause here, by the opposition of the two currents, the sand banks; while the dashing of the waves, agitated by the high winds, washes away the projecting edges of the low banks that extend into the Gulf. The expanse thus caused still further weakens the power of the current of

the river, by permitting the water to spread out too widely, decreasing its depth, checking its velocity, and increasing its tendency to deposit.

It must be observed that the shoal is situated within the mouth of the pass; that it is formed by the deposit of the sedimentary matter brought down by it, and that the only agency the water of the Gulf has in its formation is, the passive resistance with which it checks the velocity of the current of the river. Hence it is, that the water of the Gulf, even when driven into the river by southerly winds, produces no material change, if any at all, on the bar, and adds nothing to the accumulation of sedimentary matter that has contributed to form it. Whatever tendency to add to it the influx of the Gulf water, whether caused by tides or high winds, may have, is more than counterbalanced by the reflux which must necessarily follow.

This must be obvious to every one. When an elevation of the Gulf water takes place near the shore, either from the action of periodical tides or high winds, it necessarily forces its way into the mouth of the river. Having forced its way in and raised the surface of the water inside by the resistance which it offers to its passage out, and by the addition of its own volume, the tide turns and ebbs, or the winds subside, and the water forced into the river turns to seek its level in the Gulf. But as the Gulf water, acted upon by the tide or wind, has to meet in its passage up the river the force of the current, neither its velocity nor its power can be very great. When, however, it turns to seek its level in the Gulf, having no longer the resistance of the current of the river to contend against, the increased fall which its accumulation in the river gives it towards the Gulf, together with the additional impulse which the current of the river, now pressing it from behind, must give it, renders the velocity and power of the reflux, of course, much greater than that of the influx. The reflux, aided by the fall, and the volume of water, must certainly carry out more than the influx opposed by both can bring in.

The power of the current of the river is greater than the passive resistance of the Gulf water. This is evident, from the fact that it is able to maintain a depth of 12 feet over the bar. That the sedimentary matter, brought down by the river, is mostly, if not all, washed into the Gulf by the current, and carried away, is also evident from the fact, that the river is not adding to the bar. When the current of the river meets the water of the Gulf, it does not lose all its velocity at once. Its velocity is checked and somewhat diminished, but the current continues to force its way through, or rather over the dead water, partly from its original impulse, and partly from the pressure from behind, until at length the velocity, regularly diminishing as it progresses, ceases altogether, and the river water mingles with, and is lost in the vast expanse of the Gulf; while the immense mass of sedimentary matter that passes out over the bar, no longer supported by the velocity of the river, sinks in the deep water outside the bar, and becomes subject to the action of the Gulf currents, which soon removes it to other and more distant places.

Were the passive resistance of the water in the Gulf increased

until it became equal to the velocity of the river current, or the velocity of the river current diminished until it no longer exceeded the resistance of the Gulf water, the river current would, of course, be stopped at the mouth, and being no longer able to carry out into the Gulf the sedimentary matter it brought from above, that matter would be deposited there, and would increase the bar, until it rose to the surface of the water and completely shut up the river. If, on the other hand, the volume that now passes over the bar were enlarged, and the velocity increased until the power of the current was doubled, is it not evident that the inevitable result would be a decrease in the height of the bar, and an increase in the depth of the water over it? Close up the lateral outlets, confine the water of the river in its main channel, and contract the present expanse at the mouth, and a depth of twenty, thirty, or forty feet is just as possible and as practicable as the depth of twelve feet in the present condition of the channel.

To one familiar with the principles of Hydrodynamics, the removal of a shoal or bar in a river containing the volume of water that the Mississippi does, appears a matter so plain and palpable, that he can scarcely realize the fact that its practicability is doubted. The very fact, that the present defective condition of the channel of the river has caused that immense deposit of sedimentary matter, is a sufficient proof that, were it improved, the power that deposited it there could remove it. And, once removed, there is no danger that the Gulf will form one beyond where the present is situated. The water from the Gulf did not make the present bar, but, on the contrary, maintains a great depth of water immediately outside the mouth of the pass; and if the volume and velocity of the river current be increased sufficiently to remove the bar or deepen the water over it, there is no probability of a fresh one being formed; for, if the Gulf water cannot increase the present bar or form another outside of it, in the face of only twelve feet of water, how could it do so, were that depth increased to twenty, thirty, or forty feet? In fact, the more the depth of the water on the bar is increased, which can only be done by first increasing the force of the outward motion of the water, the further you remove the possibility of the formation of a new one. The depth of water is entirely and exclusively dependent upon the preponderating effect derived by the discharge of the river waters, or the force of the outward motion of the water.

From what I have said it will appear evident, that my object is to show, that the bar at the mouth of the Mississippi is caused by the diminution of the volume of water, by means of the great number of bayous or lateral outlets, which, by dividing it, check the velocity and partially destroy the power of the current; as, also, by the too great and unnecessary expanse of the channel of the passes near the Gulf. I have also endeavored to show, that the only way to remove the bar or deepen the water over it, is to remove the causes which have created it. If, therefore, lateral outlets diminish the power of a river, by diminishing the volume of its water and checking its velocity, closing them up is the best remedy, which, by keeping the volume of water that comes from above together and maintaining its velocity,

will preserve to the river the same power to deepen its channel at the mouth, that it has and does exercise at New-Orleans, or at the upper entrance of the passes. And, also, if the expanse at the mouth of the river has a tendency to weaken the power of the current that flows over the bar, and diminish its velocity, by permitting it to spread out over a wide bed, contracting it, so as to make it uniform with the average width of the channel, must be the best remedy; as the same volume of water, when concentrated, meeting with less resistance, and having a greater velocity, must certainly exercise a greater power over the bed of its channel and the dead waters of the Gulf.

ART. V.—MANUFACTURE OF SUGAR.*

THEORETIC INDICATIONS TO BE FOLLOWED OUT IN THE EXTRACTION OF SUGAR FROM RAW SUGAR-CONTAINING JUICES; AND VIOLATION OF THESE INDICATIONS, IN THE PRESENT PROCESS OF SUGAR MANUFACTURE.—THE VACUUM PAN.

A CONSIDERATION of the deductions arrived at in the previous chapters, leaves no doubt existing as to the proper indications to be followed out, in the extraction of sugar from raw sugar-containing juices. I might have said, indication,—for every subsidiary matter tends to the one great end, of reducing the complex saccharine juice, with all possible haste, to the condition of a solution of sugar in water.

Although, in practice, the sugar producer will never attain this theoretical summit of perfection, yet he should always regard the various stages of his manufacture from that assumed point of view:—which, if never permitted to be varied,—never allowed to be overcast with vague doubts,—each succeeding well-directed experimental effort will assuredly lead nearer, and nearer, to the truth. If once departed from, however—if once the sugar-extracting operation be viewed from other directions, though apparently nearer to the mark,—then the whole perspective of the theory is gone;—confusion takes the place of order, doubt of precision, fallacy of facts;—the reasoning process breaks down, and all attempts to emerge from the mental chaos are in vain.

The great aim to be kept in view during the process of sugar extraction, being the removal with all due haste of every thing except sugar and water, the subsidiary indications are, to evaporate the latter at the lowest temperature, consistent with practical necessities,—and to effect crystallization in accordance with the rules laid down before.

In carrying out the first or grand indication, it is evident that we should seek for some defecating or purifying agent which is either capable of being totally removed from the sugar solution,—or which, if allowed to remain, should be productive of no injurious tendency.

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* Continued from December number.

The latter alternative, however, would be a mere compromise; as by admitting it we immediately violate, to some extent, the grand condition of procuring an unmixed solution of sugar and water.

Having thus sketched the theoretical indications which science proclaims as necessary to be carried out, in the manufacture of sugar from raw juices, I will now offer such a general summary of the method followed in the sugar-producing colonies, as shall enable the reader to appreciate the extent to which the above theoretical conditions are violated.

It must here be premised, that, although the plan of colonial sugar manufacture for all countries is essentially, up to a certain stage, identical, yet, when various colonies are compared as to the respective process of sugar extraction followed by each,—a casual observer might imagine the existence of distinctions as essential, which in reality are merely collateral; and which involve no difference of principle whatever. As it would be exceedingly inimical to exposition of principles, to break in upon the current of observation, for the purpose of announcing mere collateral discrepancies between the machinery, or the processes of different colonies—I will here observe that, in describing the general operation of colonial sugar manufacture, in reference to the fulfilment or the violation of theoretic indications, I shall select, as typical of colonial operations in general, the process now usually followed in the West Indian islands.

Much has been written, and with great justice, on the very imperfect expression of juice from the canes by the process of mill crushing. Although experiments have demonstrated the sugar-cane to be made up of 90 per cent. on an average of juice, and 10 per cent. of woody fibre, it appears that the average amount of juice expressed by the mill is not more than 50 per cent.

The proper method of obviating this great loss of raw material is altogether a matter for the consideration of the engineer, and does not come within the sphere of chemical comment.

The juice as it comes from the mill is with as little delay as possible treated with lime, as follows, in order to effect a partial purification:—

The overseer* commences his operations by putting into a series of wine glasses some of the juice to be defecated.—He then adds to each in succession a portion of lime,—either previously mixed up

* "The man at the clarifier first raises by heat the cane juice to a temperature of about 180°, at which time a dark scum forms at the top; he then throws into the heated juice a small portion of cream, or milk of lime. After waiting two or three minutes, until the scum again forms over the surface, he dips out a wine-glassful, and if he sees the mucilage form in well-defined flakes and rise to the top, leaving a clear liquor of a pale amber, or Madeira wine colour, he is satisfied; if not, he adds more lime; but if he finds that the mucilage will not coagulate thoroughly without such an amount of lime as would deepen the colour naturally, he stops, and trusts to the skimming."—*Moody*. †

† This is the name of a gentleman from the West Indies, who examined Dr. Scoffern's sheets and remarked upon them.—Ed.

with water, or with syrup, to the consistence of gruel or thin pap. Immediately the contact is effected between the lime and the cane juice, a discoloration of the latter ensues; the amount of discoloration varying (*cœteris paribus*)—in direct proportion to the quantity of lime employed. Having added a different quantity of lime agent to each of the glasses, the operator judges by the resulting tint, which result is the best, and he is guided accordingly by this evidence, as to the quantity of lime he shall add to the general stock of juice to be defecated.

The amount of lime being determined, it is added to the juice in a copper, or an iron vessel, hung over a fire. Sometimes this vessel is the last of a range hung over one long flue; sometimes, on the contrary, it is heated by a separate fire. In either case its contents are heated to about the temperature of 180° Fahr., when a thick crust of impurities forms upon the surface of the liquid and begins to crack. The fire is now damped, and the crust removed by skimming; occasionally,* however, the clear liquid is drawn off by a racking-cock from underneath. In order that the full defecating agency of lime shall be exerted, it is necessary to apply a greater heat than 180° Fahr.; the liquid, in fact, should be brought to the boiling point. Here, however, there is a difficulty:—immediately on the commencement of ebullition, the supernatant crust becomes broken into fragments, and mechanically incorporated with the fluid so intimately, that it can no longer be removed by skimming, but requires a filtration process to be had recourse to.

The process of clearing or defecation having been effected, and the crust separated by skimming, racking, or filtration, the process of boiling is commenced. A series of copper or iron pans, diminishing in size as they approach the fire gate, and usually four or five in number, are hung over one common flue, or rather fire-place, in which the canes, after their juice has been expressed, are burnt as fuel. This fuel generates a very powerful blast of flame, which not only plays under each of the series of pans, but may be even seen to escape from the chimney.

This plan of hanging many consecutive boiling pans over one common flue is in itself most improper. It was first introduced with special reference to the peculiar kind, and the limited amount of fuel at the operator's service, and would appear to be persisted in chiefly in deference to old opinions and customs.

† The pans, too, are usually so deep, that great violence is done to the rule, that the amount of evaporation, other things being equal, is in proportion to the extent of surface of the liquid to be evaporated.

The cane juice having entered the first of these evaporating pans, the process of evaporation begins. At this stage, the juice is merely brought to a slight simmer, the heat applied being usually insufficient

* "Almost always—I never saw the other done except with steam clarifiers in St. Croix, where they first take off the crust, then add lime afterwards, boil and skim in the clarifier."—*Moody.*

† "The arrangement of the fire and the size of the pans depend on the principle that the juice must *simmer* to allow of efficient skimming. If it *boils*, the skimmer cannot *catch* the *scum*."—*Moody.*

to cause it to boil rapidly. On the surface of this and every other pan in the series, a scum arises, which from time to time is removed by the process of skimming, and put aside for the purpose of yielding rum hereafter.

After the evaporation in the first pan of the series has proceeded to the desired extent, an attendant ladles its contents into the next—in which, and in every subsequent one, until the last two, the process of skimming is repeated.* Eventually the juice (now a syrup) is ladled into the teache, or last boiling pan, wherein it is at length brought to that degree of concentration judged most proper to admit of subsequent crystallization.

It would be impossible by mere description to convey an idea of the manifestations of the proper degree of boiling having been achieved. The peculiar sound which the syrup emits when dropped from the ladle into the general contents;—the resistance it offers on being stirred;—the peculiar appearance of its bubbles;—all afford good indications to the practised boiler; but the evidence most generally followed is that which also the refiner avails himself of at home, namely, the proof of touch. A drop of the syrup being placed between the thumb and forefinger, and the two separated, a thread of syrup is formed, of varying length, and varying tenacity, according as the syrup has been more or less boiled. In this thread, also, crystals are occasionally seen, the presence of which affords valuable evidence. In the process of vacuum-pan boiling, these crystals are the operator's surest guide.

From the last, in the series of evaporating pans, the *teache*, or *tayche*, as it is called, the inspissated juice is ladled into shallow wooden vessels termed coolers; seldom more than eighteen inches deep; where it is allowed to accrete into a semi-crystalline mass.

These shallow coolers have been loudly and justly reprehended, as most inimical to the formation of crystalline sugar; and certain it is, that a chemist, if made to draw an inference from their appearance and necessary effect, without any collateral guide,—would be constrained to infer, that in the West Indian sugar-manufacturing operation—*perfect crystallization was a result to be avoided!*

In these shallow coolers the accreted mass is allowed to remain, until it has acquired sufficient consistency to admit of its being dug out, and carried away, in buckets, to the curing-house, without leaking entirely away. In this curing-house it is put into casks with perforated bottoms, each hole being loosely stopped by the stem of a plaintain leaf; and through which the uncrystallized portions of the mass, at least in part, leak into the molasses tank.

This is the ordinary plan followed; but it is subjected to many modifications, in different places.

As might have been inferred from a consideration of the plan of curing the sugar just described, the badly crystallized mass yields up its non-crystallized portion with great difficulty. The process of curing or drainage occupies, in general, many weeks; and, even at the

* "In the last two teaches the scum is brushed back into the preceding one, the liquor being too sweet to lose."—*Moody.*

expiration of that long time, is so incomplete, that it is not unusual for some 20 per cent. of the weight of a hogshead of sugar to leak into the hold of the ship on its way to Europe, and to be pumped into the sea. In a recent case which came under my notice, 25 per cent. had thus been lost, and the master of a trading vessel* informed Dr. Evans, as I am told by this gentleman, that his ship was often one and a half foot deeper in the water off Barbadoes than when arrived in the British Channel.

In order to expedite this process of curing, recourse is had on some estates to the expensive contrivance termed a pneumatic chest. This instrument consists of a chest of iron, or copper, supplied with a false bottom, either of finely-perforated plate or cane-wicker work;—on which the sugar to be acted upon, for the purpose of drawing off its molasses, is put. Under this false bottom is a space which communicates with a powerful air-pump; by the action of which, a partial vacuum can be produced, the tendency of which is to draw the more liquid portions of the mass through the false bottom.

The effect of such a contrivance as this, when made to act upon a badly crystallized sugar, need not be indicated. Not only are the uncrystallized portions drawn into the reservoir, but also a large amount of the small ill-developed crystals.

A pneumatic chest, to be really useful, should be employed upon a well-crystallized sugar—a material which, as a general rule, drains perfectly well of itself, without any mechanical aid whatever.

The process of sugar manufacture here described is, as was previously remarked, the typical one of the West Indies; it has, however, been modified in various ways. Thus, as regards the boiling range, instead of pouring the juice from one pan to the next in order, by the process of dipping, the pans in some ranges have been furnished with valves, to admit of the passage of the fluid towards the teache. Ranges of this kind have been frequently heated by steam.

Several modifications (some, unquestionably, improvements) have been made on the teache, chiefly with the view of reducing the period during which the concentrated syrup is allowed to remain exposed to the agency of the fire. One of these modifications consists in an addition to the teache, of an internal hollow core exactly fitting it, and supplied at its under part with a valve, opening inwards. This core, technically called a "skipper," being dropped from a crane into the teache, the contents of the latter open the valve, and rushing at one gush into the core, may be removed bodily, by raising the core through the medium of the crane.

Another good modification of the teache has been introduced by the French into some of their colonies. It consists in altering the form of the teache into the shape of a coal-scuttle, the lip of which rests in such a manner on a pivot, that, at the proper time, the whole teache may be raised by leverage, and its contents poured out. This kind of teache is called a *bascule*.

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* Captain Fowlis—who estimated the loss from this cause at from 3*s*. 6*d*. to 4*s*. the cwt., or 3*l*. 6*s*. to 4*l*. the ton.

Amongst the essential modifications which have been attempted from time to time on the colonial manufacture of sugar, with variable amounts of success, may be enumerated the following:

1. Filtration of the raw juice.
2. Filtration of the defecated juice.
   a. Mechanical.
   b. Chemical (through animal charcoal).
3. Improved methods of defecation.
4. The use of the vacuum pan.*

If the impurities which are so inimical to the crystallization of sugar out of the crude juice, were merely of a mechanical nature, a process of mechanical filtration would be reasonable enough; but if those impurities be really of a chemical nature, then such mechanical filtration is entirely out of place. Accordingly, the process of preliminary filtration is spoken of with universal discontent by all who have tried it. Not only is it totally inefficacious in effecting the end desired, but it is productive of much positive harm. It has already been remarked, that raw vegetable sugar-containing juices are most susceptible of fermentation; hence the operation of filtration, even if productive of benefit in this stage, should, to be useful, be most rapidly conducted. Now this is impossible,—for chemists very well know that raw vegetable juices in general, even although thin and limpid to the view, pass through filtering tissues most tardily. Add to this the amount of porous surface, moistened with fermentable liquid, exposed during the operation to atmospheric influences; and it will be readily understood that preliminary filtration is most fatal to the interest of the colonial sugar-maker. I would, by no means, extend this remark to a rough process of straining, at this stage, for the purpose of removing broken pieces of cane, fragments of leaves, and other mechanical impurities, which might somewhat inconvenience future operations. Such an operation, however, is not one of filtration, but of straining.

Should the process of mechanical filtration be executed after defecation? As a general rule, doubtless this question should be answered affirmatively, as being a step in the right direction; but so long as lime is used as a defecator, the process of filtration will be deprived of half its value. Not only is the flocculent scum developed by lime most unfavorable to the process of rapid filtration, but the advantage gained is more specious than real, inasmuch as so many impurities still remains in juices defecated by lime, that, although the act of filtration may have yielded a liquor of great brightness, it

* The processes of claying and liquoring, under whatever modification, are here purposely omitted, as not being improvements of the sugar manufacture—but merely an extension of that manufacture beyond the usual colonial limits, into the art of the refiner.

becomes turbid, and throws up more scum on the further application of heat.*

With regard to filtration through animal charcoal, it can never be profitably applied to the treatment of raw juices, or those as have merely been exposed to the process of defecation, without subsequent concentration. It has been demonstrated, that this agent produces its maximum effect on sugar solutions of about the density of 28° Beaumé; hence, if employed at all, it should be at the interval between the last boiling-pan and the teache. Numerous experiments, however, have convinced me that animal charcoal should never be employed in the colonies for the purpose of making any but absolutely white sugar. The beautiful straw-colored tinge, so admired by grocers, and which all sugars by a proper system of defecation can be made to assume, animal charcoal has a tendency to destroy—imparting a disagreeable neutral tint in its place.

The expense of using animal charcoal, too, in the West Indies, being somewhat about £2 per ton of sugar, is in itself a most serious obstacle to its general adoption.

The last essential improvement introduced into the colonial sugar manufacture is that of the vacuum pan, an instrument which merits a full description.

At the ordinary level of the sea the atmosphere exerts a pressure of 15 lbs. on every square inch; and, whilst exposed to this pressure, water boils at a temperature of 212° Fahr.†

If, however, by means of the air-pump or otherwise, a portion of the atmospheric pressure be removed from the water's surface, then the degree of heat necessary to effect ebullition is reduced—reduced, too, in a known and definite ratio, so that for every pound of atmospheric pressure taken off, a proportionate diminution of the boiling temperature is accomplished.

Not the most perfect vacuum which we are capable of forming, is sufficient to cause water to boil at ordinary atmospheric temperatures without the application of any extraneous heat—simply because water is not a fluid of sufficient volatility. If ether, however, which is a far more volatile liquid, be exposed to the same treatment, it boils with violence: water under similar circumstances would merely be rapidly given off in the form of vapor.

The rationale, and also the laboratory practice of increased evaporation under diminished pressure, has already been explained. It now remains to be stated, that the vacuum pan is merely an instru-

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"* The sliminess which affects the bag filters is a great disadvantage to charcoal filters. I have known the charcoal frequently clogged; and, when washed with care and placed in open casks for collection for re-burning, ferment to such a degree as to char the casks, and reduce the value of the charcoal by a considerable production of white ash."—*Moody*.

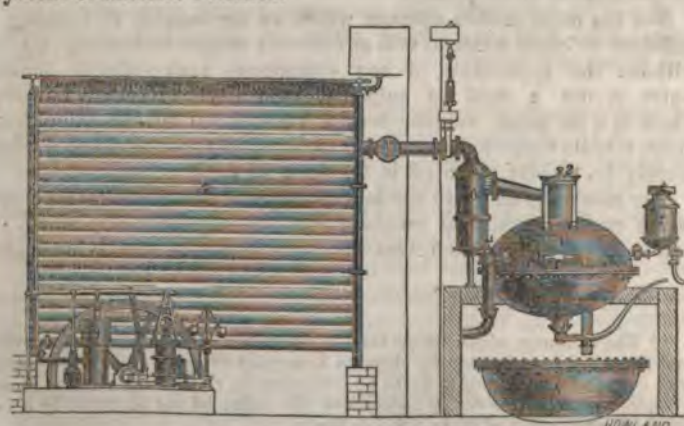
† In a metallic vessel. Gay-Lussac has proved that water boils at 214° in one of glass; owing, apparently, to its adhering to glass more powerfully than to a metal.

ment which unites to the principle of evaporating under diminished pressure, the application of a certain—but comparatively small—amount of artificial heat.

To the Honorable Mr. Howard we are indebted for the invention of this most useful instrument,* which has already effected such improvements in the home refinery process, and which is destined before long to extend its ameliorating influence to the colonies abroad.

The vacuum pan may be described as composed of two copper segments of spheres joined together at the edges. The lower hemisphere is imbedded into a steam-jacket or space, into which steam, of a varying pressure up to 3 lbs. to the inch, can be forced; and in order to increase the area of heating steam surface beyond the amount furnished by the lower segment of the pan, there passes internally a coil of copper pipe, through which a current of steam may be made to rush. It is obvious that any liquid put into a vessel of this kind, will be exposed to so large an amount of heating surface that it must soon arrive at its boiling point; but the vacuum producing part of the apparatus has yet to be described. Attached to the pan at its upper part is a pipe of communication, with a cylindrical vessel called a condenser,† and which is exactly similar to the condensing apparatus in a low-pressure steam engine; consisting either of a means of injecting a gush of cold water through a series of minute holes, which plan is called that of direct condensation, or else of a series of small tubes exposed to the external agency of water—a plan denominated that of indirect or tubular condensation. Beyond this condenser, and communicating with it, is a powerful air-pump.

The accompanying wood-cut, however, represents a condenser (7) of a different and more effective kind. It is the external condensing system of Messrs. Pontifex.



* His patent was taken out in 1819.

† Between the vacuum pan and condenser is a vessel destined to contain any solution which may boil over. This vessel, however, theoretically—may be considered as a mere expansion of the vacuum pan. This is indicated in the dia-

The action of this apparatus in the aggregate will be as follows:—The pan being filled to the desired extent with sugar solution to be evaporated, steam being let on to the jacket and into the coil, the temperature of the liquid continues to rise. Meantime the air-pump being set to work, a partial vacuum is produced, and the atmospheric pressure exerted upon the syrup in the pan is gradually lowered to such an extent, that the liquid begins to boil.

The vapor resulting from this ebullition passing into the condenser, is exposed to the agency of cold water, and immediately assumes the liquid state; finally this condensed water is drawn off by the *air* pump, as it is called, although the instrument performs the mixed function of pumping both air and water.

Such are the essential portions of the vacuum-pan, but certain accessory parts are yet to be described. The most important of these is the appendage called the proof-stick, a contrivance by means of which the operator can from time to time remove and examine a portion of the evaporating syrup without the least destruction of the partial vacuum. Attached to the copper segment of the pan is a thermometer, for the purpose of indicating the temperature of the syrup, and also a vacuum-gauge, as it is technically called, an instrument on the barometric principle, by referring to which the amount of atmospheric pressure exercised at any period on the evaporating liquid can be at once read off. On the summit of the upper segment of the pan is a man-hole,* supplied with an accurately ground cover, and by the side of it an entrance for each successive charge of liquor, which passes from an adjoining vessel of determinate capacity called the *measure.*

At the lowest part of the under hemisphere is situated a valve through which the sugar solution, when sufficiently boiled, is allowed to escape into another vessel called the heater, or occasionally the cooler.†

This heater may be compared to the lower segment of a vacuum-pan, minus its coil, being a copper pan, imbedded in a steam jacket, by the agency of which a graduated heat may be applied.

The use of this instrument is to allow the conditions of time and prolonged fluidity for the more perfect development of those crystals,

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gram by the figure 6. The other portions of the apparatus are as follow: (1) the measure, (2) the man-hole, with ground cover, (3) vacuum-pan, (4) proof-stick, (5) heater, (7) condenser, (8) steam-engine and air-pump, (9) escape valve of the vacuum-pan, through which its contents pass into the heater.

* The aperture through which a man enters the vacuum-pan for the purpose of cleaning it.

† The indifferent application of the term heater and cooler, the one for the other, is curious, although easy to be explained. So long as sugar solutions were boiled in open pans under the ordinary atmospheric pressure, and at a temperature of 220° and upwards, the vessel in which the boiled liquor was allowed to assume a temperature of 176° might appropriately enough be denominated a cooler. But under the process of vacuum-pan boiling, at a temperature of about 140°, this vessel, in which the latter degree of temperature becomes changed to 176°, as before, is to all intents a heater; still the old name is in many refineries maintained.

the formation of which had been already commenced during the operation of vacuum boiling.

Fuller details of the employment of the vacuum-pan and its accessory, the heater, will be given under the head of "refinery operations,"—such a general account of these instruments merely being here given, as might suffice for the purpose of investigating the advantages and disadvantages of the colonial operation of vacuum boiling.

It is a subject of much surprise to many persons who have witnessed the results of vacuum-pan boiling at home in refineries, that when used in the colonies it has been productive of such ambiguous results. This surprise will vanish when we consider the conditions under which a vacuum-pan can be profitably worked, and how difficult of attainment these conditions have hitherto been in the colonies. However objectionable in most points of view the ordinary colonial evaporating process may be, it nevertheless is well adapted to the end of removal of impurities by surface skimming—an operation which is totally impracticable when the vacuum-pan is employed. Hence, although this valuable instrument exercises the full amount of its well-known and legitimate influence—although it may effect evaporation at the practical minimum—although an experienced boiler may be present to *strike* or let off its contents at the proper time; still the result of boiling an impure juice in vacuo will in all cases be—an impure sugar.

This fact is at length becoming so well recognized, that a gentleman of much practical experience, as an engineer in the West Indian colonies, informs me of a resolve he had made, never again to set up a vacuum-pan on any West Indian property, (save a few exceptional estates on which the juice was remarkably pure,) except under a guarantee that the juice should have been submitted to charcoal filtration—this being the only means at that period known to him, as capable of effecting the necessary amount of defecation.

It may very safely be asserted that the great utility of the vacuum-pan has yet to be demonstrated to colonial sugar growers. Hitherto, even on estates where it has given a qualified satisfaction, the true genius of the instrument has been altogether misunderstood. Instead of aiming at the production of a well crystallized result, mixed with a thin syrup of drainage, or molassess, admitting of easy removal, and then leaving the sugar almost dry, the general aim of the colonial sugar-maker has been to produce, by high or stiff boiling, the maximum amount of semi-crystalline produce. If this kind of material were a marketable commodity in its present state, the endeavor of aiming at its maximum produce would be intelligible; but as it requires the expensive process of liquoring to render it fit for the market, the process of stiff boiling is in contravention of all proprieties.*

* Dr. Evans informs me that in the island of Java there are used vacuum-pans having an escape aperture in the side, through which the solid concrete is shovelled by a man sent into the pan for that purpose, after each boiling operation. A patentee, moreover, actually proposes to grind this kind of concrete into grains *by a mill*!

The method in which the process of liquoring is commonly practised in the West Indies is fearfully wasteful, and in other respects open to the greatest censure.

Under the definition of liquoring, the principle of that operation has been explained. I will now offer, in anticipation of another part of this treatise, a concise explanation of the mode of conducting it in refineries, in order to demonstrate most powerfully the destructive mode followed in the colonies.

Under the proper conditions of temperature, hereafter to be mentioned, the refiner puts his boiled and crystalline syrup into moulds, supported on their apices, and the hole of each apex stopped with a pledget of brown paper. Here the mass is allowed to cool; and, when cold, the plug in the apex being withdrawn, each mould is supported on a corresponding earthen pot. A portion of syrup, technically known as green syrup, more or less colored, now drains away, and the cone of sugar is left comparatively dry. The sugar forming the base or face of each cone being now removed by a revolving cutter, termed the *facing machine*, the sugar so removed is mixed with water to the consistence of a thin magma (technically named clay), and reimposed on the base of the cone. This is the operation termed in refineries claying. After some hours the operation of liquoring commences by pouring on the smooth surface, or face left by the subsidence of the clay, a concentrated aqueous solution of sugar. The result of this operation is, that the coloring matters of the sugar are totally washed into the pot below, and a loaf of white sugar is formed.

As conducted in refineries, the operation of liquoring is most philosophical, and most efficient—an operation without which, or the equivalent one of prolonged claying, a thoroughly white sugar cannot be made. Its success depends so entirely on the purity and saturation of the *magma liquor*, or aqueous solution of sugar, that the preparation of the latter is a matter to the intelligent refiner of greatest solicitude. If the magma liquor be *colored*, it is evident the sugar which it is employed to wash cannot be *colorless*. If the magma liquor, also, be not fully saturated, it will become so during percolation, at the expense of the sugar which it is intended to cleanse,—and the loaves will be partially dissolved. This is too evident for further comment. What, then, would be thought of the refiner, who, in violation of the obvious principles just laid down, should attempt to liquor by means of water? And yet this is the kind of liquoring very frequently performed in some of the West Indian islands where vacuum-pans are used. The concentration having been carried on, as I have already remarked, to a higher extent than propriety warrants, the mass is cooled, thrown into a pneumatic chest, and affused with water by means of a garden-pot! The air pump is now put vigorously to work; a partial vacuum is produced underneath, and the water of affusion, carrying with it many impurities, and much sugar also, is drawn into the cistern below. It is a fortunate circumstance that the crystals or grains of vacuum boiling are usually large, and, therefore, less easily soluble than they would

be if they presented greater surface to the agency of the solvent—otherwise the loss attendant on this most improper operation would be greatly augmented. The final result of this rude process of liquoring is, a large-grained dusky yellow sugar, now generally used for the purpose of sweetening coffee. Considered in the abstract, without reference to the steps by which it was obtained, this sugar might be taken as a proof of the benefits of colonial vacuum-pan boiling; and hence, from want of a fuller acquaintance with the subject, the most erroneous notions have been disseminated.

The rude process of liquoring by water, already described, is not invariably followed, it is true, in the colonies; sometimes a portion of juice, defecated and evaporated, to a certain extent, is substituted. Occasionally, too, the refinery process of making pure magma liquor has been adopted, but still under circumstances involving the greatest improprieties.

The propriety or impropriety of the claying and liquoring operations, in the colonies, can only be correctly judged of by reference to the precise end desired to be achieved. Thus it is possible to conceive a manufacture injured, even to ruin, by instituting false comparisons between it and another, and by the introduction of appliances, admirably adapted to the former case, but adverse to the latter. The colonial application of the process of liquoring, even when well managed, is emphatically open to the remarks just made. The refiner's object is to procure a white sugar, and the process of liquoring is absolutely necessary to give him this; therefore, cost what it may, the operation must be followed. The object of the colonial sugar-maker, however, is, and has been, to obtain a *yellow* coloured sugar; a staple which may be made in the greatest perfection of tint without the employment of any claying or liquoring process whatever; without charcoal, alumina, or lime; as will be hereafter demonstrated. True it is, that if the cane juice be boiled too high, especially if in contact with lime, and other impurities, the process of liquoring will be required to remove such a portion of them, that the resulting sugar shall have a marketable colour. But the contemplation of this fact brings us back again to the conclusion already arrived at:—That no secondary appliances—not even the vacuum-pan—can accomplish any great amelioration of the sugar produce, whilst made to operate upon an impure juice.

Under the definition *Claying*, has been given a condensed account of the colonial process of claying. It is necessary now to contemplate it a little more narrowly in detail. The operation is more particularly followed by the Spanish and Portuguese colonies; and in a modified form also by the natives of Hindostan.

The general manner of conducting the operation is as follows:—Instead of putting the sugar to be drained into casks, it is placed in large earthenware or iron cones, after the method of refineries, and the green syrup is allowed to percolate away.

At this period, a magma or pap of white clay and water is superimposed; the agency of which is, manifestly—to wash away a portion

of the chemical coloring impurities existent in the yellow sugar. The operation of claying is repeated twice or thrice, each coat of clay as it dries being removed, and another substituted in its place.

This claying operation is a most extravagant one; involving the loss of a third part of the original contents of the cone; and producing, after all, a sugar which, even at the base of the cones, or nearest to the clay, is far from white.

It has already been remarked, that in India a modified process of claying is pursued. An equivalent process would be a more correct expression; but not to discuss one principle under many heads, the term claying may be retained to express the Indian operation.

Instead of using clay, or a magma of sugar and water termed clay by the English refiners, the Hindoos generally attain the end of washing their raw sugar partially white, by superimposing on the base of the conical contents masses of hygrometric weeds or damp cloths; the effect of either being—the gradual liberation of water, and, consequently, the partial removal of chemical coloring impurities.

By following the processes of claying or liquoring, under almost any of their modifications, the darkest sugars may be made comparatively light colored; and thus may be made to yield a product capable of misleading the unwary.

Thus it often happens that samples of light colored sugars are displayed, and appealed to, as triumphs of some new method of sugar manufacture,—the only beauty of such sugars being such as is derived from the claying or liquoring processes; and which sugars, before the application of these processes, might have been almost black. This mode of displaying sugars is a piece of charlatanry which cannot be too severely reprobated. There is another, scarcely more defensible, namely,—the display of large crystals or grains, which every chemist knows any sample of cane sugar can be made to assume, by mere devices of evaporation and cooling.

It cannot, however, be a matter of wonder, that the latter deceit should be largely practised, when it is considered that the sugar community has elevated the question of grain into a most unsafe position; and has made it a false criterion of qualities with which it has no connexion whatever.

The sugar broker, or refiner, attaches great importance to the touch which certain sugars impart when pressed, or rubbed between the finger and thumb; and accordingly as it feels soft or hard, it is pronounced weak or strong:—this criterion, like many others which have been misapplied, is, within proper limits, safe and good;—without those limits, productive of serious errors.

The first body into which sugar becomes changed, in the downward series of destructive metamorphoses, is glucose or grape sugar; which, if present in any considerable quantity, is most inimical to the formation of large crystals; it moreover imparts to the mass a condition of clammy pastiness. Under these circumstances, the sense of touch would be a very safe guide to the purchaser of raw sugar; who would be acting consistently in repudiating all sugars possess-

ing small grain, *from this cause.* But the rule may be extended to the furthest limits of falsehood; even to the absurdity of pronouncing refined sugar in powder—*weak*, but the same sugar in the lump—*strong*.

Having discussed the fallacy of being guided implicitly by the sense of touch, it remains to show the fallacies attendant on the sense of taste.

Nothing is more common than the affirmation, that one certain sugar has more sweetness than another, or that it possesses more saccharine matter; and, to place the affirmation in its most absurd light, the amount of sweetness or saccharine matter is made to decrease in proportion to the purity of the sugar. Thus, it is a very common affirmation, that white sugar does not sweeten so well as yellow sugar; in other words, that pure sugar does not sweeten so well as that which is impure:—*because the former has less saccharine matter than the latter!* Such is the common assertion:—one that may be heard very widely disseminated indeed—from the cook in our own kitchens, to the brokers in Mincing Lane; and, strange to say, in refineries too. Once admit the assertion to be valid, and to what a chaos of absurdity are we led. The whole system of sugar refining, with all its costliness, all its complexity, all its experience, is prosecuted—for what? To render sugar less saccharine,—to effect a destruction! Such is the necessary conclusion.

To explain these discrepancies between language and facts, is not so difficult as it may at first seem,—they originate in the use of lax expressions, based upon the evidence of the most fallacious of all our senses—the sense of taste.

It is a fact very well known to physiologists, that when certain tastes of different kinds and of different amounts of intensity are combined, so that they affect the gustatory organs at once,—the judgment, although unable to discriminate between them, and forming a conception alone of that taste which is most familiar, or most predominant *as to kind;* nevertheless as to the qualities of strength or pungency,—the judgment conveys a mixed idea of both. Or when two bodies are mixed,—one alone of which has a taste,—(practically or absolutely)—the effect of the tasteless body is often confounded with the effect of the other.

The above is not a mere fine-wrought philosophical deduction; but one which has been applied to practice, and its truth demonstrated in many ways. Thus the dishonest tavern-keeper adulterates his spirit, particularly gin, with tincture of capsicum, and his beer with cocculus indicus:—in either case to impart a fictitious alcoholic strength. The most untutored palate would distinguish between the taste of gin, and of cayenne pepper, alone: but, when mixed in certain proportions, the pungency imparted by the latter to the gustatory organs is recognized, but not discriminated—both together conveying the vague idea of strength.

As to cocculus indicus, it is devoid of pungency, but is a narcotic; nevertheless, the judgment is equally deceived as in the former case.

Again, to take another instance, there are few snuff-takers with nasal organs so obtuse, as to be incapable of distinguishing lime, powdered glass, extract of logwood, sand, sal-ammoniac, or smelling salts, from the powder of tobacco. Yet in the form of snuff the nose is continually deceived. All these foreign bodies may be and frequently are mixed with snuff to give it a pungency; each agent conveys an impression, but loses its individuality—the idea of tobacco preponderates over all the rest.

Thus is it with impure or colored sugars, which consist of sugar, plus many foreign bodies, each possessing its own abstract individual taste;—conveying when alone a notion both of kind and degree;—but when in conjunction—only the latter: which goes to augment the predominant idea of sweetness, conveyed by the most familiar, most prevailing substance of the mixture—sugar.

Here is a fruitful source of the fallacy adverted to; but there is another. The idea of sweetness, as conveyed by sugars equally pure, varies in direct ratio to the amount of comminution: Hence large-grained sugars seem to be less sweet than those the grains of which are small. The reason of this will be evident, when it is considered that all substances which are insoluble in the saliva are totally devoid of taste,—and that the taste of all other substances is in direct ratio to the rapidity with which they are dissolved in the mouth.

It is very evident, then, that the sense of taste is far too fallacious in its nature, and tends to inferences far too vague, for the decision of such an important matter as the amount of actual sugar in any saccharine mixture; such as raw sugar, under any of its conventional denominations, must be regarded. Neither is the test of specific gravity at all more decisive; for, in the most impure of raw sugars, the total amount of impurities bears but a very trifling ratio to the mass; and, moreover, possesses a specific gravity so little different from that of sugar, that for all practical purposes it may safely be asserted, that all samples of raw sugar, of equal dryness, form, with equal amounts of water of equal temperatures, solutions, the specific gravities of which are also equal. Hence the hydrostatic or saccharometer test cannot, any more than other plans of taking specific gravities, convey the least idea of the purity or impurity,—the goodness or badness, of raw sugars.

Having successively considered the chief methods pursued to effect drainage of the non-crystallized from the crystallized portion of concentrated saccharine juices, and in what respects they are adequate or inadequate to the end desired, it now remains for me to devote some attention to the product of such drainage; which product is denominated by the vague term "molasses."

It may be inferred from former remarks, that the investigation of the nature and properties of molasses will best be prosecuted by starting from the assumption that sugar may be concentrated by evaporation, without any destruction whatever: in which case the molasses, or liquor of drainage, would be the precise analogue of that resulting from crystallized saltpetre would consist of nothing but a solution of

sugar in water. I have already remarked that this condition it is impossible absolutely to achieve; but by removing from the solution to be evaporated all destructive agents, and by properly regulating the application of heat, the amount of destruction may be reduced to such a minimum, that the molasses, or syrup of drainage, shall virtually, though not actually, be an aqueous solution of pure sugar.

Descending from this extreme summit of excellence to the other extreme of the scale, we at length arrive at the results of Soubeiran's experiment, wherein every particle of sugar was destroyed.

Within the limits bounded by these two extremes, the ratio between the amount of sugar destroyed, and the amount crystallized, may vary indefinitely; each product yielding a liquor, or syrup of drainage, to which the general term molasses will be applied; although such liquor of drainage may be anything from an aqueous solution of sugar, accompanied by some mere traces of foreign bodies, up to a compound of little else than glucose, mixed with its black acid derivatives.

It is evident, therefore, that the term molasses is a most indefinite one, and should never be used in argument unless its meaning have been specially limited to the conditions of the instance under discussion. It appears, then, that liquor of drainage, or syrup, (molasses,) there ever must be, as the result of the crystallization of sugar, even under the most favorable circumstances; and the question of the best mode of treating it, for the purpose of obtaining its sugar, must be determined by reference to its richness in that substance.

And here the sugar producer is met, on the very threshold of his subject, by the necessity of accommodating his operation to an ill-defined popular taste. Were it a question with the colonial sugar producer of selling the pure material—*sugar*, his course might indeed be very difficult, but it would at least be well defined. At any price, cost what it might, he would be driven to cleanse all his raw crystallized material from every particle of coloring, or other non-crystallized substances; in other words, from every particle of its *molasses*. Such, however, is not the desideratum which the sugar producer has in view; the public expects him to produce a colored sugar; that is, a white sugar, each crystal of which is coated with a certain amount of molasses; to which latter the qualities of moistness and color are due. Now the question of how much molasses shall be thus allowed to remain as a coating, involves the consideration of such indeterminate matters as, variety of popular tastes; of manufacturing expenses; the comparative value of sugar and rum, &c. As a general rule, however, the West India sugar producers, (those of Jamaica excepted, who obtain a high price for their rum,) consider it profitable to boil the juice very stiff, and export the muscovado sugar in a very undrained state. The glaring impropriety of this procedure has already been pointed out; therefore I need not advert to it again. It is desirable, however, to find adequate causes for a practice which appears so repugnant to all common intelligence.

The causes are chiefly as follow: 1. The desire of the overseers to

make a display of the quantity of sugar shipped. 2. The low market price of molasses by itself, compared with the market price of molasses as forming a part of muscovado sugar. It is painful to have to record the fact, that the real owners of a great number of West India estates are not the ostensible ones, but merchants or brokers at home; who, by way of mortgage, have a direct lien on the property; and, indirectly, have the privilege of exclusive management, with all the commercial advantages thereby accruing. Under these circumstances it is too frequently an object with the resident agent to make a display of a large amount of sugar produced on his estate, whereas the amount is merely one of sugar, plus the molasses absorbed. The material being thus placed on shipboard moist and undrained, may, under the circumstances of a fair wind, and easy passage, arrive here without great loss. If it do so arrive, its sale may be accomplished. The English grocer, by dint of mixing it with dry refinery pieces, and a certain portion of dry East India or Mauritius sugar, at length forms a compound of remunerative selling price, and all parties are satisfied. If, however, the passage should be rough, causing much agitation to the cargo, if the temperature should be unusually high, or the hogsheads unusually leaky, then a large portion of the molasses percolates into the hold, and is pumped overboard.

Thus the present West Indian sugar manufacture is made to assume an appearance of risk and uncertainty which, so far from necessarily belonging to it, at least in the way indicated, may, by a system of improved treatment, be prevented altogether.

It is a question very commonly put by the colonial sugar producer, whether a specimen of sugar resulting from a certain process will stand the voyage? To such a question there is one general answer. Any sugar will stand the voyage provided it be well drained, and that it be freed from all impurities which are of a deliquescent nature. Sugar itself is unalterable, in an atmosphere of very considerable dampness; and the mere adherent brown, or yellow, coat of molasses, which imparts the peculiar color and sensation of moisture, without clamminess, to good muscovado sugar, is not sufficient in itself to cause any loss by drainage.

As regards the second reason which influences the West India sugar producers in allowing their staple to be largely admixed with molasses, viz.: the low value of molasses by itself as compared with that of molasses when it forms part of muscovado sugar—it will be evident, on reflection, that the amount of sugar contained in bad molasses may be so small, so much admixed with impurities, that it either may not pay for re-evaporation, or that it must be evaporated alone. To evaporate it in the teache, mingled with fresh or uncrystallized syrup, would be impracticable, on account of the mass of impurities which would be thus imparted. It will be, moreover, evident, that beyond a certain point of richness in sugar, and general purity, molasses may thus be treated with propriety. Hence we are brought again to contemplate the first grand source of all improvements in the colonial sugar produce—the perfect defecation or puri-

fication of the juice. Until some process conducive to this end be generally followed by our colonists—until some means be devised of rendering the molasses or syrup of drainage so pure, that it may be returned without prejudice to the teache, and boiled with the concentrating juice, the chemist will expatiate in vain on the theoretical indications of low boiling and perfect drainage, as necessary to the production of a well crystallized sugar. So long as the general run of molasses is of its present average impurity, so long will it be impossible to be boiled except alone—a process involving the use of more fuel than the West Indian colonist can command; indeed, if he could, the result would be scarcely marketable; and so long will the weight of semi-solid saccharine produce (sugar is a wrong term) obtained, be the result of the first, and only boil. If, however, the sugar producer could be made to follow some plan of defecating his juice, that would insure a molasses so pure that it might be returned to the teache, and the process repeated through several operations, he would then have no plea for the continuance of his present ill-judged plan, which may be, without impropriety, designated an operation of smuggling, devised for the purpose of selling molasses under the name of sugar.

If the West Indian sugar growers were to be furnished at once with a never-failing means of producing a large grained, and therefore an easily cured, sugar, to the exclusion of all other sorts, their produce would have to encounter a difficulty which the consumer would scarcely have imagined. Such large-grained sugars are very unfavorable to the perpetration of certain mysterious operations of legerdemain,* which grocers understand too well. They will not mix. A small grained sugar may readily be incorporated with glucose, with pieces, or bastards, and other less innocent bodies, without such incorporation being discoverable to the eye. A large-grained sugar, on the other hand, is a most refractory material for these little manipulations; its crystals, no matter how mingled with contaminating agents, never ceasing to manifest their native brilliancy, and thus proclaiming the fraud. It is most easy, then, to understand why the grocer, as a rule, does not encourage these large-grained sugars. He cannot "*handle*" them, and therefore brands them with a fault. He says they are deficient in saccharine matter—that they will not sweeten. True it is, that comparatively small portions of these large-grained sugars are sold,—and sold at high prices; but merely as fancy articles, on the proceeds of which the grocer nets too little, to make their sale an object of primary solicitude.

Such is the source of one prejudice against dry and large-grained sugars—a prejudice originating amongst the grocers. There is also another, which originates amongst refiners;—who are adverse to the general consumption of these beautiful colonial sugars, for the very obvious reason—that the consumption of their own staple is thereby lessened. The refiner's expressed objection is remarkable, as em-

* Termed by grocers "*handling*."

bodying a philosophic idea not at all known to chemists, and, in fact, adverse to all chemical analogy. He is in the habit of saying that such large-grained sugars produced in the colonies contain a great amount of water, and that hence they are, what he terms—weak. Now, for the sake of argument, we will assume this to be the fact, and will see how it bears upon the refiner himself. If the vacuum-pan accomplishes the incorporation of water with sugar in the colonies, of course a similar effect results at home *in refineries*. Hence the refinery operation, thus proved to consist in effecting the crystalline incorporation of water with sugar, must be profitable beyond any limits which the public, and the Chancellor of the Exchequer, have hitherto assumed: and this enormous profit should be at once adequately taxed! To such absurdities are we led, by arguing from loosely-expressed current data.*

Having pointed out the injurious agency of lime as a defecating agent, I will now pass in review the chief methods which have been had recourse to from time to time for accomplishing the important end of defecation, without the employment of that destructive,—although not very efficient,—alkaline earth.

And here I will remark, that there scarcely exists a mineral salt, of whatever kind,—that does not, when a solution of it is added to sugar-containing juices, at the proper temperature—usually about 180°,—cause the precipitation of bulky, flocculent masses; being combinations of the impurities existing in the juice, with the mineral base of the salt. By witnessing effects of this kind, persons unacquainted with chemistry have been led to the most unsafe conclusions, and numerous are the pseudo-discoveries thus palmed upon the world.

To defecate merely, or effect the separation of impurities from sugar-containing juices,—is but one portion of the problem to be

* Lest it be thought I unjustly impugn the science of practical men well conversant with sugars, I will here mention two circumstances; one for the truth of which I vouch, the other communicated to me by one of our largest metropolitan copper manufacturers. Towards the end of the summer of 1848, I showed a London broker a very fine sample of well crystallized colonial sugar. His comment was most peculiar. He told me that—"now-a-days popular taste required the grain of sugar to be of a different shape to mine; people now liked grains with *rounded angles!*" The copper worker's anecdote is as follows:—"I was once sent for in a great hurry," he very naively told me, "to a refinery where a vacuum-pan of mine had been some time in work. I lost no time in hastening there, for the message was urgent. 'I want you to get a hole bored in the dome of that pan,'—was the sage request of the refiner, on my arrival. 'A hole in what?' said I. 'In the dome of that pan,' answered the refiner. 'But for what?' 'Because it is too tight—there is too much vacuum—in short the pan won't do.' In vain I remonstrated, in vain I pointed out the absurdity. The refiner had only one answer,—'His boiler said the pan was too tight—and bored a hole must be forthwith.' It was accordingly done." In fairness to the refiner it should be remarked, that his vacuum-pan had formerly a leak in it; which leak having been stopped, the boiler *fancied* that the pan worked less satisfactorily than before. From these premises a very absurd conclusion was arrived at, as we have seen.

solved. The defecating process must be effected without destruction to the sugar; and by an agent that is so perfectly under control, that any excess of it, above the quantity necessary to effect defecation, shall be easily removable. For practical purposes, another and a most important condition must be achieved :—the whole must be effected within the limits of a remunerative cost.

It is painful to con over the numerous projects,—specious enough at a first glance, but in violation of the rules of guidance, or indications laid down,—which have been thrust upon the sugar producer, and the refiner, so often, and with such unvarying failure,—that all new plans, however intrinsically good, are regarded always with suspicion and doubt,—often with neglect or contempt.

Thus, in a patent specification lately published, sugar solutions in the colonies, and in refineries, are proposed to be defecated by operations that would effect the liberation in the sugar of—nitric, sulphuric, prussic, and oxalic acids;—without any provision for removing either of these deadly substances! Fortunately there is a chemical safeguard here. The presence of a minute trace of oxalic acid prevents the crystallization of sugar,—and the same remark applies, though less forcibly, to the presence of nitric and sulphuric acids. The author of this patent being totally ignorant of chemistry, was misled by the fallacious appearance of a mere separation of coagula.

Foremost amongst the materials which have been employed at various times, both in the colonies and for refinery use, is the earth, alumina, in some of the various states which it may be made to assume. The idea of employing alumina seems to be derived from a somewhat analogous application of this substance, for the making of vegetable coloring matters, termed lakes. Thus, if a decoction of logwood be mixed with a solution of the salt alum,—which is a compound of sulphuric acid, potash, and alumina,—and a solution of potash added, the earth, alumina, is set free; and immediately combining with the coloring matter of the logwood, both fall in union, and constitute a precipitate which, when dried and powdered, is called a lake. Instead of logwood, various other vegetable, and some animal, coloring bodies, may be substituted; and with a similar result.

Following out this idea, alumina has been employed with the view of separating the coloring matters out of solutions of muscovado sugar, and the general vegetable impurities out of cane-juice.

On cane-juice I have never had an opportunity of trying it; but on solutions of muscovado sugar I have frequently tested the powers of alumina, without, in any case, being much struck with its utility. A certain defecating effect it unquestionably produces; but by no means to the extent that would induce one to anticipate any vital or radical improvement in the sugar manufacture,—home or colonial,—by generally adopting it. Not long since I was called upon to witness the effect produced by a mixture of alumina, sulphate of lime, and bone black, on a solution of Khaur sugar.* The experiment was

* A most impure result of the native sugar manufacture in Hindostan.

shown me as a triumph, but I was at a loss to conceive how the result could have been worse.

Alumina, as prepared in its purity by chemists, would be inapplicable to the purpose indicated, no matter how successful in its results,—merely from considerations of expense :—many cheap modifications of the material have, therefore, been from time to time devised. One of the most general of these was discovered by the Honorable Mr. Howard (the inventor of the vacuum-pan) in 1812; and consists of a mixture of sulphate of lime, free lime, and alumina. This mixture, commonly known as *Howard's Finings*, is prepared by adding to a solution of alum and water, a portion of cream of lime, sufficient to combine with all the sulphuric acid of the alumina, to throw down the alumina, and to leave an excess of lime. The supernatant liquor of this operation, consisting of sulphate of potash, must be absolutely washed away, or it will impart an injurious quality of deliquescence to such sugar as may be prepared with the finings. In a patent of some years' standing, chalk instead of lime is used to decompose the alum; with what advantage, however, is not so obvious.

In France and other countries where sugar is largely manufactured from beet-root juice, the *sulphate of alumina*—(not alum, which is the potash sulphate of that base)—is largely employed as a defecating agent. On solutions of muscovado sugar I can affirm from experience, that its defecating properties by no means come up to the expectations I had been induced to form.

Very far superior to all other agents as precipitants for the vegetable impurities of natural sugar-containing juices,—as also for the impurities existing in muscovado sugar,—are the acetates, particularly the basic, or sub-acetates of lead.

So wide is the sphere of operation which these bodies possess, as precipitants of the albuminous and colored matter of vegetable juices, that even the juice of beet-root, which, after being allowed to remain in contact with the air for about half an hour, becomes black,—is instantly purified to such an extent that, when filtered, it resembles water. Not only do these salts of lead precipitate the general impurities from raw vegetable juices,—but even a number of dark colored decoctions are rendered, by treatment with it, comparatively colorless in a few instants. Chemists have long been aware of this property—have long used the acetates of lead as precipitating agents for certain albuminous and colored matters, in the laboratory, with the most perfect success; every attempt, however, to employ these agents satisfactorily, even on the small scale, for the purpose of throwing down the impurities from muscovado sugar in solution, or from cane-juice, was unsatisfactory; whilst on the large scale, the attempt, when tried, failed altogether.

The reasons of this failure, in the employment of lead salts for the purpose indicated, are various; as will presently be recognised.

The first problems to be solved are these: either to use the lead salt in such exact proportion to the amount of impurity with which it is intended to combine, that both shall fall down in combination,

and be capable of removal; or to add a known excess of lead salt to the sugar solution,—to separate the precipitate caused by filtration,—then to throw down from the filtered liquor all the remaining lead by means of some precipitating agent not productive of injury to sugar: and, as a subsidiary problem,—to remove the acetic acid liberated from the lead, either as an insoluble compound, or to combine it with some body that shall neither be injurious to sugar, nor to health,—and separable, if possible, by the process of drainage.

Such are the necessities of the case,—even in the laboratory, on a small scale. Let us examine how they can be met.

The first problem does not admit of solution;—it involves an impossibility: inasmuch as, however small, above a certain microscopic limit, the quantity of lead salt added,—the filtered solution will still contain lead: although a fresh addition of more lead salt to the filtrate will not fail to produce a new precipitate. This circumstance can be accounted for, by assuming the concurrent formation of two or more compounds of lead and vegetable matters; one compound being soluble, and the other not.

In operating on sugar thus,—we are reduced to the necessity of disregarding, as a means of safety, all apportionment whatever:—the only way left open to us is, to precipitate the excess of lead.

Simple as this may appear as a laboratory operation, it cannot be accomplished by the ordinary laboratory means. The usual agent employed by chemists to separate lead out of solutions is hydrosulphuric acid gas;—a body which throws it down effectually from sugar solutions, it is true, but spoils the sugar:—in consequence of the facility with which, by trifling circumstances, it is decomposed, with the liberation of sulphur. Hence, so frequently had the experiment been tried, and with such uniformly bad success, that not only was the idea of employing these agents in combination relinquished, but the ruin of the sugar was attributed not to the proper cause—viz: the effect of hydrosulphuric acid employed to separate the lead:—but to the lead itself.

The employment of hydrosulphuric acid thus being out of the question, we have next to examine the other means commonly employed in the laboratory for accomplishing that end. Occasionally sulphuric acid* is used to separate lead out of solutions; which end it accomplishes perfectly, even out of those of sugar; but if sulphuric acid be employed, it is incumbent on the operator to add one exact quantity—no more—no less: if too much, the free or uncombined overplus of acid, by acting on the sugar, would speedily convert it—first, into glucose, and thence downward in the scale of destruction into glucic, melasinic, sacchulmic, sacchumic acids, &c.: if too little, there would remain an excess of lead; which not only is injurious to health, but, also, if boiled with sugar, a very destructive agent.

The question of lead, then, as a defecator for sugar, seemed hope-

* Sulphuric acid has lately been tried by a gentleman in India, who utterly failed, however, in achieving the object proposed.

less. Its remarkable action was witnessed, admired, and abandoned; until in the year 1839, Messrs. Gwynne and Young took out a patent for the separation of the excess of lead by means of the diphosphate of lime;—an agent which, in the laboratory, can be made to succeed perfectly; but which I believe to be, both on the score of expense and uncertainty, totally inapplicable on the large scale.

These gentlemen, however, deserve great praise for their investigations; which are, chemically considered, of a masterly kind. Although the operation necessarily failed in practice, for reasons which I have indicated, its perfect success in laboratory quantities demonstrated the most important fact,—*that the acetates of lead,* per se, *were not injurious to the constitution of sugar.*

This demonstration having been accomplished, the chemist was warranted in resuming the task of finding out some precipitating body that should not only act in the laboratory under chemical superintendence; but one that should act anywhere, and in any quantity.

Such an agent I was fortunate enough to discover in July, 1847. This precipitant is sulphurous acid gas: the methods of employing which I have recorded in another publication, and therefore need not repeat here; seeing that my present object is simply to record a chemical fact.

Since the period of July, 1847, the efficacy of this gas has been tried on the large scale in a refinery, and also on cane juice; in both cases with the most perfect success.

ART. VI.—CHANCELLOR HARPER'S MEMOIR ON SLAVERY.*

It is worthy of remark, that there does not now exist on the face of the earth, a people in a tropical climate, or one approaching to it, where slavery does not exist, that is in a state of high civilization, or exhibits the energies which mark the progress towards it. Mexico and the South American republics,† starting on their new career of

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* Continued from December Number.

† The author of England and America thus speaks of the Columbian republic:

"During some years, this colony has been an independent state; but the people dispersed over these vast and fertile plains, have almost ceased to cultivate the good land at their disposal; they subsist principally, many of them entirely on the flesh of wild cattle; they have lost most of the arts of civilized life; not a few of them are in a state of deplorable misery; and if they should continue, as it seems probable they will, to retrograde as at present, the beautiful pampas of Buenos Ayres will soon be fit for another experiment in colonization. Slaves, black or yellow, would have cultivated those plains, would have kept together, would have been made to assist each other; would, by keeping together and assisting each other, have raised a surplus produce exchangeable in distant markets; would have kept their masters together for the sake of markets; would, by combination of labor, have preserved among their masters the arts and habits of civilized life." Yet this writer, the whole practical effect of whose work, whatever he may have thought or intended, is to show the ab-

independence, and having gone through a farce of abolishing slavery, are rapidly degenerating, even from semi-barbarism. The only portion of the South American continent which seems to be making any favorable progress, in spite of a weak and arbitrary civil government, is Brazil, in which slavery has been retained. Cuba, of the same race with the continental republics, is daily and rapidly advancing in industry and civilization; and this is owing exclusively to her slaves. St. Domingo is struck out of the map of civilized existence, and the British West Indies will shortly be so. On the other continent, Spain and Portugal are degenerate, and their rapid progress is downward. Their southern coast is infested by disease, arising from causes which industry might readily overcome, but that industry they will never exert. Greece is still barbarous and scantily peopled. The work of an English physician distinguished by strong sense and power of observation*, gives a most affecting picture of the condition of Italy,—especially south of the Apennines. With the decay of industry, the climate has degenerated towards the condition from which it was first rescued by the labor of slaves. There is poison in every man's veins, affecting the very springs of life, dulling or extinguishing, with the energies of the body, all energy of mind, and often exhibiting itself in the most appalling forms of disease. From year to year the pestilential atmosphere creeps forward, narrowing the circles within which it is possible to sustain human life. With disease and misery, industry still more rapidly decays, and if the process goes on, it seems that Italy too will soon be ready for another experiment in colonization.

Yet once it was not so, when Italy was possessed by the masters of slaves; when Rome contained her millions, and Italy was a garden; when their iron energies of body corresponded with the energies of mind, which made them conquerors in every climate and on every soil; rolled the tide of conquest, not as in later times, from the South to the North; extended their laws and their civilization, and created them lords of the earth.

> "What conflux issuing forth or entering in;
> Prætors, pro-consuls to their provinces,
> Hasting, or on return in robes of state.
> Lictors and rods, the ensigns of their power,
> Legions and cohorts, turms of horse and wings:
> Or embassies from regions far remote,
> In various habits, on the Appian road,
> Or on th' Emilian; some from farthest South,
> Syene, and where the shadow both way falls,
> Meroe, Nilotic isle, and more to West,
> The realms of Bocchus to the Blackmoor sea;
> From th' Asian kings, and Parthian among these;

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solute necessity, and immense benefits of slavery, finds it necessary to add, I suppose, in deference to the general sentiment of his countrymen, "that slavery might have done all this, seems not more plain, than that so much good would have been bought too dear, if its price had been slavery." Well may we say that the word makes men mad.

* Johnson on Change of Air.

From India and the golden Chersonese,
And utmost India's isle, Taprobona,
Dusk faces, with white silken turbans wreathed;
From Gallia, Gades and the British West;
Germans and Scythians, and Sarmartians, North
Beyond Danubius to the Tauric Pool!
All nations now to Rome obedience pay."

Such was and such is the picture of Italy. Greece presents a contrast not less striking. What is the cause of the great change? Many causes, no doubt, have occurred; but though

"War, famine, pestilence and flood and fire
Have dealt upon the seven-hilled city's pride,"

I will venture to say that nothing has dealt upon it more heavily than the loss of domestic slavery. Is not this evident? If they had slaves, with an energetic civil government, would the deadly miasma be permitted to overspread the Campagna and invade Rome herself? Would not the soil be cultivated, and the wastes reclaimed? A late traveller* mentions a canal, cut for miles through rock and mountain, for the purpose of carrying off the waters of the lake of Celeno, on which thirty thousand Roman slaves were employed for eleven years, and which remains almost perfect to the present day. This, the government of Naples was ten years in repairing with an hundred workmen. The imperishable works of Rome which remain to the present day were, for the most part, executed by slaves. How different would be the condition of Naples, if for her wretched lazaroni were substituted negro slaves, employed in rendering productive the plains whose fertility now serves only to infect the air!

To us, on whom this institution is fastened, and who could not shake it off, even if we desired to do so, the great republics of antiquity offer instruction of inestimable value. They teach us that slavery is compatible with the freedom, stability and long duration of civil government, with denseness of population, great power, and the highest civilization. And in what respect does this modern Europe, which claims to give opinions to the world, so far excel them—notwithstanding the immense advantages of the Christian religion and the discovery of the art of printing? They are not more free, nor have performed more glorious actions, nor displayed more exalted virtue. In the higher department of intellect—in all that relates to taste and imagination—they will hardly venture to claim equality. Where they have gone beyond them in the results of mechanical philosophy, or discoveries which contribute to the wants and enjoyments of physical life, they have done so by the help of means with which they were furnished by the Grecian mind—the mother of civilization—and only pursued a little farther the track which that had always pointed out. In the development of intellectual power,

* Eight days in the Abruzzi.—*Blackwood's Magazine, November*, 1835.

they will hardly bear comparison. Those noble republics, in the pride of their strength and greatness, may have anticipated for themselves—as some of their poets did for them—an everlasting duration and predominance. But they could not have anticipated, that when they had fallen under barbarous arms, that when arts and civilization were lost, and the whole earth in darkness—the first light should break from their tombs—that in a renewed world, unconnected with them by ties of locality, language or descent, they should still be held the models of all that is profound in science, or elegant in literature, or all that is great in character, or elevated in imagination. And perhaps when England herself, who now leads the war with which we are on all sides threatened, shall have fulfilled their mission, and like the other glorious things of the earth, shall have passed away; when she shall have diffused her noble race and noble language, her laws, her literature and her civilization, over all quarters of the earth, and shall perhaps be overrun by some Northern horde—sunk into an ignoble and anarchical democracy,* or subdued to the dominion of some Cæsar,—demagogue and despot,—there, in Southern regions, there may be found many republics, triumphing in Grecian arts and civilization, and worthy of British descent and Roman institutions.

If after a time, when the mind and almost the memory of the republic were lost, Romans degenerated, they furnish conclusive evidence that this was owing not to their domestic, but to their political slavery. The same thing is observed over all the eastern monarchies; and so it must be, wherever property is insecure, and it is dangerous for a man to raise himself to such eminence by intellectual or moral excellence, as would give him influence over his society. So it is in Egypt and the other regions bordering the Mediterranean, which once comprehended the civilization of the world, where Carthage, Tyre and Phœnicia flourished. In short, the uncontradicted experience of the world is, that in Southern States where good government and prædial and domestic slavery are found, there are prosperity and greatness; where either of these conditions is wanting, degeneracy and barbarism. The former, however, is equally essential in all climates and under all institutions. And can we suppose it to be the design of the Creator, that these regions, constituting half of the earth's surface, and the more fertile half and more capable of sustaining life, should be abandoned forever to depopulation and barbarism? Certain it is, that they will never be reclaimed by the labor of freemen. In our own country, look at the lower valley of the Mississippi, which is capable of being made a far greater Egypt. In our own state, there are extensive tracts of the most fertile soil, which are capable of being made to swarm with life. These are at present pestilential swamps, and valueless, because there is abundance of other fertile soil in more favorable situations, which demand all and more than

* I do not use the word democracy in the Athenian sense, but to describe the government in which the slave and his master have an equal voice in public affairs.

all the labor which our country can supply. Are these regions of fertility to be abandoned at once and forever to the alligator and tortoise—with here and there perhaps a miserable, shivering, crouching *free* black savage? Does not the finger of heaven itself seem to point to a race of men—not to be enslaved by us, but already enslaved, and who will be in every way benefited by the change of masters—to whom such climate is not uncongenial, who though disposed to indolence, are yet patient and capable of labor; on whose whole features, mind and character, nature has indelibly written—slave;—and indicate that we should avail ourselves of these in fulfilling the first great command, to subdue and replenish the earth.

It is true that this labor will be dearer than that of northern countries, where, under the name of freedom, they obtain cheaper and perhaps better slaves. Yet it is the best we can have, and this too has its compensation. We see it compensated at present by the superior value of our agricultural products. And this superior value they must probably always have. The Southern climate admits of a greater variety of productions. Whatever is produced in Northern climates, the same thing, or something equivalent, may be produced in the Southern. But the Northern have no equivalent for the products of Southern climates. The consequence will be, that the products of Southern regions will be demanded all over the civilized world. The agricultural products of Northern regions are chiefly for their own consumption. They must therefore apply themselves to the manufacturing of articles of luxury, elegance, convenience or necessity,—which requires cheap labor,—for the purpose of exchanging them with their Southern neighbors. Thus nature herself indicates that agriculture should be the predominating employment in Southern countries, and manufactures in Northern. Commerce is necessary to both—but less indispensable to the Southern, which produce within themselves a greater variety of things desirable to life. They will therefore have somewhat less of the commercial spirit. We must avail ourselves of such labor as we can command. The slave must labor, and is inured to it; while the necessity of energy in his government, of watchfulness, and of preparation and power to suppress insurrection, added to the moral force derived from the habit of command, may help to prevent the degeneracy of the master.

The task of keeping down insurrection is commonly supposed, by those who are strangers to our institution, to be a very formidable one. Even among ourselves, accustomed as we have been to take our opinions on this as on every other subject, ready formed from those whom we regarded as instructors, in the teeth of our own observation and experience, fears have been entertained which are absolutely ludicrous. We have been supposed to be nightly reposing over a mine, which may at any instant explode to our destruction. The first thought of a foreigner sojourning in one of our cities, who is awakened by any nightly alarm, is of servile insurrection and massacre. Yet if any thing is certain in human affairs, it is certain and from the most obvious considerations, that we are more secure in this respect than any civilized and fully-peopled society upon the face of

the earth. In every such society, there is a much larger proportion than with us, of persons who have more to gain than to lose by the overthrow of government, and the embroiling of social order. It is in such a state of things that those who were before at the bottom of society, rise to the surface. From causes already considered, they are peculiarly apt to consider their sufferings the result of injustice and misgovernment, and to be rancorous and embittered accordingly. They have every excitement therefore of resentful passion, and every temptation which the hope of increased opulence, or power or consideration can hold out, to urge them to innovation and revolt. Supposing the same disposition to exist in equal degree among our slaves, what are their comparative means or prospect of gratifying it? The poor of other countries are called free. They have, at least, no one interested to exercise a daily and nightly superintendence and control over their conduct and actions. Emissaries of their class may traverse, unchecked, every portion of the country, for the purpose of organizing insurrection. From their greater intelligence, they have greater means of communicating with each other. They may procure and secrete arms. It is not alone the ignorant, or those who are commonly called the poor, that will be tempted to revolution. There will be many disappointed men, and men of desperate fortune—men perhaps of talent and daring—to combine them and direct their energies. Even those in the higher ranks of society who contemplate no such result, will contribute to it, by declaiming on their hardships and rights.

With us, it is almost physically impossible, that there should be any very extensive combination among the slaves. It is absolutely impossible that they should procure and conceal efficient arms. Their emissaries traversing the country, would carry their commission on their foreheads. If we suppose among them an individual of sufficient talent and energy to qualify him for a revolutionary leader, he could not be so extensively known as to command the confidence, which would be necessary to enable him to combine and direct them. Of the class of freemen, there would be no individual so poor or degraded (with the exception perhaps of here and there a reckless and desperate outlaw and felon) who would not have much to lose by the success of such an attempt; every one therefore would be vigilant and active to detect and suppress it. Of all impossible things, one of the most impossible would be a successful insurrection of our slaves, originating with themselves.

Attempts at insurrection have indeed been made—excited, as we believe, by the agitation of the abolitionists and declaimers on slavery; but these have been in every instance promptly suppressed. We fear not to compare the riots, disorder, revolt and bloodshed which have been committed in our own, with those of any other civilized communities, during the same lapse of time. And let it be observed under what extraordinary circumstances our peace has been preserved. For the last half century, one half of our population has been admonished in terms the most calculated to madden and excite, that they are the victims of the most grinding and cruel injustice and oppression. We know that these exhortations continually reach them,

through a thousand channels which we cannot detect, as if carried by the birds of the air—and what human being, especially when unfavorably distinguished by outward circumstances, is not ready to give credit when he is told that he is the victim of injustice and oppression? In effect if not in terms, they have been continually exhorted to insurrection. The master has been painted a criminal, tyrant and robber, justly obnoxious to the vengeance of God and man, and they have been assured of the countenance and sympathy, if not of the active assistance of all the rest of the world. We ourselves have in some measure pleaded guilty to the impeachment. It is not long since a great majority of our free population, servile to the opinions of those whose opinions they had been accustomed to follow, would have admitted slavery to be a great evil, unjust and indefensible in principle, and only to be vindicated by the stern necessity which was imposed upon us. Thus stimulated by every motive and passion which ordinarily actuate human beings—not as to a criminal enterprize, but as to something generous and heroic—what has been the result? A few imbecile and uncombined plots—in every instance detected before they broke out into action, and which, perhaps, if undetected, would never have broken into action; one or two sudden, unpremeditated attempts, frantic in their character, if not prompted by actual insanity, and these instantly crushed. As it is, we are not less assured of safety, order and internal peace than any other people; and but for the pertinacious and fanatical agitation of the subject, would be much more so.

This experience of security, however, should admonish us of the folly and wickedness of those who have sometimes taken upon themselves to supersede the regular course of law, and by rash and violent acts to punish supposed disturbers of the peace of society. This can admit of no justification or palliation whatever. Burke, I think, somewhere remarks something to this effect,—that when society is in the last stage of depravity—when all parties are alike corrupt and alike wicked and unjustifiable in their measures and objects, a good man may content himself with standing neuter, a sad and disheartened spectator of the conflict between the rival vices. But are we in this wretched condition? It is fearful to see with what avidity the worst and most dangerous characters of society seized on the occasion of obtaining the countenance of better men, for the purpose of throwing off the restraints of law. It is always these who are most zealous and forward in constituting themselves the protectors of the public peace. To such men—men without reputation or principle or stake in society—disorder is the natural element. In that, desperate fortunes and the want of all moral principle and moral feeling constitute power. They are eager to avenge themselves upon society. Anarchy is not so much the absence of government as the government of the worst—not aristocracy but kakistocracy—a state of things which, to the honor of our nature, has seldom obtained amongst them, and which perhaps was only fully exemplified during the worst times of the French revolution, when that horrid hell burnt with its most lurid flame. In such a state of things, to be accused is to be condemned—to protect

the innocent is to be guilty; and what perhaps is the worst effect, even men of better nature, to whom their own deeds are abhorrent, are goaded by terror to be forward and emulous in deeds of guilt and violence. The scenes of lawless violence which have been acted in some portions of our country, rare and restricted as they have been, have done more to tarnish its reputation than a thousand libels. They have done more to discredit, and if any thing could, to endanger, not only our domestic, but our republican institutions, than the abolitionists themselves. Men can never be permanently and effectually disgraced but by themselves, and rarely endangered but by their own injudicious conduct, giving advantage to the enemy. Better, far better, would it be to encounter the dangers with which we are supposed to be threatened, than to employ such means for averting them. But the truth is, that in relation to this matter, so far as respects actual insurrection, when alarm is once excited, danger is absolutely at an end. Society can then employ legitimate and more effectual measures for its own protection. The very commission of such deeds, is proof that they are unnecessary. Let those who attempt them then, or make any demonstration towards them, understand that they will meet only the discountenance and abhorrence of all good men, and the just punishment of the laws they have dared to outrage.

It has commonly been supposed, that this institution will prove a source of weakness in relation to military defence against a foreign enemy. I will venture to say, that in a slave-holding community, a larger military force may be maintained permanently in the field, than in any state where there are not slaves. It is plain that almost the whole of the able-bodied free male population, making half of the entire able-bodied male population, may be maintained in the field, and this without taking in any material degree from the labor and resources of the country. In general the labor of our country is performed by slaves. In other countries, it is their laborers that form the material of their armies. What proportion of these can be taken away without fatally crippling their industry and resources? In the war of the revolution, though the strength of our state was wasted and paralyzed by the unfortunate divisions which existed among ourselves, yet it may be said with general truth, that every citizen was in the field, and acquired much of the qualities of the soldier.

It is true that this advantage will be attended with its compensating evils and disadvantages; to which we must learn to submit, if we are determined on the maintenance of our institutions. We are, as yet, hardly at all aware how little the maxims and practices of modern civilized governments will apply to us. Standing armies, as they are elsewhere constituted, we cannot have; for we have not, and for generations cannot have, the materials out of which they are to be formed. If we should be involved in serious wars, I have no doubt but that some sort of conscription, requiring the services of all citizens for a considerable term, will be necessary. Like the people of Athens, it will be necessary that every citizen should be a soldier, and qualified to discharge efficiently the duties of a soldier. It may seem a melancholy consideration, that an army so made up should be op-

posed to the disciplined mercenaries of foreign nations. But we must learn to know our true situation. But may we not hope, that made up of superior materials, of men having home and country to defend; inspired by higher pride of character, of greater intelligence, and trained by an effective, though honorable discipline, such an army will be more than a match for mercenaries? The efficiency of an army is determined by the qualities of its officers; and may we not expect to have a greater proportion of men better qualified for officers, and possessing the true spirit of military command? And let it be recollected, that if there were otherwise reason to apprehend danger from insurrection, there will be the greatest security when there is the largest force on foot within the country. Then it is that any such attempt would be most instantly and effectually crushed.

And perhaps a wise foresight should induce our state to provide, that it should have within itself such military knowledge and skill as may be sufficient to organize, discipline and command armies, by establishing a military academy or school of discipline. The school of the militia will not do for this. From the general opinion of our weakness, if our country should at any time come into hostile collision, we shall be selected for the point of attack; making us, according to Mr. Adams' anticipation, the Flanders of the United States. Come from what quarter it may, the storm will fall upon us. It is known that lately, when there was apprehension of hostility with France, the scheme was instantly devised of invading the Southern States and organizing insurrection. In a popular English periodical work, I have seen the plan suggested by an officer of high rank and reputation in the British army, of invading the Southern States at various points and operating by the same means. He is said to be a gallant officer, and certainly had no conception that he was devising atrocious crime, as alien to the true spirit of civilized warfare, as the poisoning of streams and fountains. But the folly of such schemes is no less evident than their wickedness. Apart from the consideration of that which experience has most fully proved to be true—that in general their attachment and fidelity to their masters is not to be shaken, and that from sympathy with the feelings of those by whom they are surrounded, and from whom they derive their impressions, they contract no less terror and aversion towards an invading enemy; it is manifest that this recourse would be an hundred fold more available to us than to such an enemy. They are already in our possession, and we might at will arm and organize them in any number that we might think proper. The Helots were a regular constituent part of the Spartan armies. Thoroughly acquainted with their characters and accustomed to command them, we might use any strictness of discipline which would be necessary to render them effective, and from their habits of subordination already formed, this would be a task of less difficulty. Though morally most timid, they are by no means wanting in physical strength of nerve. They are excitable by praise; and directed by those in whom they have confidence, would rush fearlessly and unquestioning upon any sort of danger. With white officers and accompanied by a strong white cavalry, there are

no troops in the world from whom there would be so little reason to apprehend insubordination or mutiny.

This I admit might be a dangerous resource, and one not to be resorted to but in great extremity. But I am supposing the case of our being driven to extremity. It might be dangerous to disband such an army, and reduce them, with the habits of soldiers, to their former condition of laborers. It might be found necessary, when once embodied, to keep them so, and subject to military discipline—a permanent standing army. This in time of peace would be expensive, if not dangerous. Or, if at any time we should be engaged in hostilities with our neighbors, and it were thought advisable to send such an army abroad to conquer settlements for themselves, the invaded regions might have occasion to think that the scourge of God was again let loose to afflict the earth.

President Dew has very fully shown how utterly vain are the fears of those, who though there may be no danger for the present, yet apprehend great danger for the future, when the number of slaves shall be greatly increased. He has shown that the larger and more condensed the society becomes, the easier it will be to maintain subordination, supposing the relative numbers of the different classes to remain the same—or even if there should be a very disproportionate increase of the enslaved class. Of all vain things, the vainest and that in which man most shows his impotence and folly, is the taking upon himself to provide for a very distant future—at all events, by any material sacrifice of the present. Though experience has shown that revolutions and political movements—unless when they have been conducted with the most guarded caution and moderation—have generally terminated in results just the opposite of what was expected from them, the angry ape will still play his fantastic tricks, and put in motion machinery, the action of which he no more comprehends or foresees than he comprehends the mysteries of infinity. The insect that is borne upon the current, will fancy that he directs its course. Besides the fear of insurrection and servile war, there is also alarm lest when their numbers shall be greatly increased, their labor will become utterly unprofitable, so that it will be equally difficult for the master to retain and support them, or to get rid of them. But at what age of the world is this likely to happen? At present, it may be said that almost the whole of the Southern portion of this continent is to be subdued to cultivation; and in the order of providence, this is the task allotted to them. For this purpose, more labor will be required for generations to come than they will be able to supply. When that task is accomplished, there will be many objects to which their labor may be directed.

At present they are employed in accumulating individual wealth, and this in one way, to wit, as agricultural laborers—and this is perhaps the most useful purpose to which their labor can be applied. The effect of slavery has not been to counteract the tendency to dispersion, which seems epidemical among our countrymen, invited by the unbounded extent of fertile and unexhausted soil, though it counteracts many of the evils of dispersion. All the customary

trades, professions and employments, except the agricultural, require a condensed population for their profitable exercise. The agriculturist who can command no labor but that of his own hands or that of his family, must remain comparatively poor and rude. He who acquires wealth by the labor of slaves, has the means of improvement for himself and his children. He may have a more extended intercourse, and consequently means of information and refinement, and may seek education for his children where it may be found. I say, what is obviously true, that he has the *means* of obtaining those advantages; but I say nothing to palliate or excuse the conduct of him who, having such means, neglects to avail himself of them.

I believe it to be true, that in consequence of our dispersion, though individual wealth is acquired, the face of the country is less adorned and improved by useful and ornamental public works, than in other societies of more condensed population, where there is less wealth. But this is an effect of that, which constitutes perhaps our most conspicuous advantage. Where population is condensed, they must have the evils of condensed population, and among these is the difficulty of finding profitable employment for capital. He who has accumulated even an inconsiderable sum, is often puzzled to know what use to make of it. Ingenuity is therefore tasked to cast about for every enterprise which may afford a chance of profitable investment. Works useful and ornamental to the country, are thus undertaken and accomplished, and though the proprietors may fail of profit, the community no less receives the benefit. Among us, there is no such difficulty. A sale and profitable method of investment is offered to every one who has capital to dispose of, which is further recommended to his feelings by the sense of independence and the comparative leisure which the employment affords to the proprietor engaged in it. It is for this reason that few of our citizens engage in the pursuits of commerce. Though these may be more profitable, they are also more hazardous and more laborious.

When the demand for agricultural labor shall be fully supplied, then of course the labor of slaves will be directed to other employments and enterprises. Already it begins to be found, that in some instances it may be used as profitably in works of public improvement. As it becomes cheaper and cheaper, it will be applied to more various purposes and combined in larger masses. It may be commanded and combined with more facility than any other sort of labor; and the laborer, kept in stricter subordination, will be less dangerous to the security of society than in any other country, which is crowded and overstocked with a class of what are called free laborers. Let it be remembered, that all the great and enduring monuments of human art and industry—the wonders of Egypt—the everlasting works of Rome—were created by the labor of slaves. There will come a stage in our progress when we shall have facilities for executing works as great as any of these—more useful than the pyramids—not less magnificent than the sea of Moeris. What the end of all is to be; what mutations lie hid in the womb of the distant future; to what convulsions our societies may be exposed—whether the

master, finding it impossible to live with his slaves, may not be compelled to abandon the country to them—of all this it were presumptuous and vain to speculate.

I have hitherto, as I proposed, considered it as a naked, abstract question of the comparative good and evil of the institution of slavery. Very far different indeed is the practical question presented to us, when it is proposed to get rid of an institution which has interwoven itself with every fibre of the body-politic; which has formed the habits of our society, and is consecrated by the usage of generations. If this be not a vicious prescription, which the laws of God forbid to ripen into right, it has a just claim to be respected by all tribunals of man. If the negroes were now free, and it were proposed to enslave them, then it would be incumbent on those who proposed the measure, to show clearly that their liberty was incompatible with the public security. When it is proposed to innovate on the established state of things, the burthen is on those who proposed the innovation, to show that advantage will be gained from it. There is no reform, however necessary, wholesome or moderate, which will not be accompanied with some degree of inconvenience, risk or suffering. Those who acquiesce in the state of things which they found existing, can hardly be thought criminal. But most deeply criminal are they who give rise to the enormous evil with which great revolutions in society are always attended, without the fullest assurance of the greater good to be ultimately obtained. But if it can be made to appear, even probably, that no good will be obtained, but that the results will be evil and calamitous as the process, what can justify such innovations? No human being can be so mischievous—if acting conscientiously, none can be so wicked, as those who, finding evil in existing institutions, rush blindly upon change, unforeseeing and reckless of consequences, and leaving it to chance or fate to determine whether the end shall be improvement, or greater and more intolerable evil. Certainly the instincts of nature prompt to resist intolerable oppression. For this resistance no rule can be prescribed, but it must be left to the instincts of nature. To justify it, however, the insurrectionists should at least have a reasonable probability of success, and be assured that their condition will be improved by success. But most extraordinary is it, when those who complain and clamor, are not those who are supposed to feel the oppression, but persons at a distance from them, and who can hardly at all appreciate the good or evil of their situation. It is the unalterable condition of humanity, that men must achieve civil liberty for themselves. The assistance of allies has sometimes enabled nations to repel the attacks of foreign power; never to conquer liberty as against their own internal government.

In one thing I concur with the abolitionists: that if emancipation is to be brought about, it is better that it should be immediate and total. But let us suppose it to be brought about in any manner, and then inquire what would be the effects.

The first and most obvious effect, would be to put an end to the cultivation of our great southern staple. And this would be equally

the result, if we suppose the emancipated negroes to be in no way distinguished from the free laborers of other countries, and that their labor would be equally effective. In that case, they would soon cease to be laborers for hire, but would scatter themselves over our unbounded territory, to become independent land-owners themselves. The cultivation of the soil on an extensive scale, can only be carried on where there are slaves, or in countries superabounding with free labor. No such operations are carried on in any portions of our own country where there are not slaves. Such are carried on in England, where there is an overflowing population and intense competition for employment. And our institutions seem suited to the exigencies of our respective situations. There, a much greater number of laborers is required at one season of the year than at another, and the farmer may enlarge or diminish the quantity of labor he employs, as circumstances may require. Here, about the same quantity of labor is required at every season, and the planter suffers no inconvenience from retaining his laborers throughout the year. Imagine an extensive rice or cotton plantation cultivated by free laborers, who might perhaps *strike* for an increase of wages, at a season when the neglect of a few days would insure the destruction of the whole crop: even if it were possible to procure laborers at all, what planter would venture to carry on his operations under such circumstances? I need hardly say, that these staples cannot be produced to any extent where the proprietor of the soil cultivates it with his own hands. He can do little more than produce the necessary food for himself and his family.

And what would be the effect of putting an end to the cultivation of these staples, and thus annihilating at a blow, two-thirds, or three-fourths of our foreign commerce? Can any sane mind contemplate such a result without terror? I speak not of the utter poverty and misery to which we ourselves would be reduced, and the desolation which would overspread our own portion of the country. Our slavery has not only given existence to millions of slaves within our own territories, it has given the means of subsistence, and therefore existence to millions of freemen in our confederate states; enabling them to send forth their swarms, to overspread the plains and forests of the West, and appear as the harbingers of civilization. The products of the industry of those states are in general similar to those of the civilized world, and are little demanded in their markets. By exchanging them for ours, which are every where sought for, the people of these states are enabled to acquire all the products of art and industry, all that contributes to convenience or luxury, or gratifies the taste or the intellect, which the rest of the world can supply. Not only on our own continent, but on the other, it has given existence to hundreds of thousands, and the means of comfortable subsistence to millions. A distinguished citizen of our own state, than whom none can be better qualified to form an opinion, has lately stated that our great staple, cotton, has contributed more than any thing else of later times to the progress of civilization. By enabling the poor to obtain cheap and becoming clothing, it has inspired a taste for comfort, the

first stimulus to civilization. Does not *self-defence* then demand of us, steadily to resist the abrogation of that which is productive of so much good? It is more than self-defence. It is to defend millions of human beings, who are far removed from us, from the intensest suffering, if not from being struck out of existence. It is the defence of human civilization.

But this is but a small part of the evil which would be occasioned. After President Dew, it is unnecessary to say a single word on the practicability of colonizing our slaves. The two races, so widely separated from each other by the impress of nature, must remain together in the same country. Whether it be accounted the result of prejudice or reason, it is certain that the two races will not be blended together so as to form a homogeneous population. To one who knows any thing of the nature of man and human society, it would be unnecessary to argue that this state of things cannot continue; but that the one race must be driven out by the other, or exterminated, or again enslaved. I have argued on the supposition that the emancipated negroes would be as efficient as other free laborers. But whatever theorists, who know nothing of the matter, may think proper to assume, we well know that this would not be so. We know that nothing but the coercion of slavery can overcome their propensity to indolence, and that not one in ten would be an efficient laborer. Even if this disposition were not grounded in their nature, it would be a result of their position. I have somewhere seen it observed, that to be degraded by opinion, is a thousand fold worse, so far as the feelings of the individual are concerned, than to be degraded by the laws. *They* would be thus degraded, and this feeling is incompatible with habits of órder and industry. Half our population would at once be paupers. Let an inhabitant of New-York or Philadelphia conceive of the situation of their respective states, if one half of their population consisted of free negroes. The tie which now connects them being broken, the different races would be estranged from each other, and hostility would grow up between them. Having the command of their own time and actions, they could more effectually combine insurrection and provide the means of rendering it formidable. Released from the vigilant superintendence which now restrains them, they would infallibly be led from petty to greater crimes, until all life and property would be rendered insecure. Aggression would beget retaliation, until open war, and that a war of extermination, were established. From the still remaining superiority of the white race, it is probable that they would be the victors, and if they did not exterminate, they must again reduce the others to slavery—when they could be no longer fit to be either slaves or freemen. It is not only in self-defence, in defence of our country and of all that is dear to us, but in defence of the slaves themselves, that we refuse to emancipate them.

If we suppose them to have political privileges, and to be admitted to the elective franchise, still worse results may be expected. It is hardly necessary to add any thing to what has been said by Mr. Paulding on this subject, who has treated it fully. It is already known, that

if there be a class unfavorably distinguished by any peculiarity from the rest of society, this distinction forms a tie which binds them to act in concert, and they exercise more than their due share of political power and influence—and still more, as they are of inferior character and looser moral principle. Such a class form the very material for demagogues to work with. Other parties court them and concede to them. So it would be with the free blacks in the case supposed. They would be used by unprincipled politicians, of irregular ambition, for the advancement of their schemes, until they should give them political power and importance beyond even their own intentions. They would be courted by excited parties in their contests with each other. At some time, they may perhaps attain political ascendency, and this is more probable, as we may suppose that there will have been a great emigration of whites from the country. Imagine the government of such legislators. Imagine then the sort of laws that will be passed, to confound the invidious distinction which has so long been assumed over them, and if possible to obliterate the very memory of it. These will be resisted. The blacks will be tempted to avenge themselves by oppression and proscription of the white race, for their long superiority. Thus matters will go on, until universal anarchy, or kakistocracy, the government of the worst, is fully established. I am persuaded that if the spirit of evil should devise to send abroad upon the earth all possible misery, discord, horror and atrocity, he could contrive no scheme so effectual as the emancipation of negro slaves within our country.

The most feasible scheme of emancipation, and that which I verily believe would involve the least danger and sacrifice, would be that the *entire* white population should emigrate, and abandon the country to their slaves. Here would be triumph to philanthropy. This wide and fertile region would be again restored to ancient barbarism—to the worst of all barbarism—barbarism corrupted and depraved by intercourse with civilization. And this is the consummation to be wished, upon a *speculation*, that in some distant future age, they may become so enlightened and improved, as to be capable of sustaining a position among the civilized races of the earth. But I believe moralists allow men to defend their homes and their country, even at the expense of the lives and liberties of others.

Will any philanthropist say that the evils, of which I have spoken, would be brought about only by the obduracy, prejudices and overweaning self-estimation of the whites in refusing to blend the races by marriage, and so create an homogeneous population? But what if it be not prejudice, but truth, and nature, and right reason, and just moral feeling? As I have before said, throughout the whole of nature, like attracts like, and that which is unlike repels. What is it that makes so unspeakably loathsome, crimes not to be named, and hardly alluded to? Even among the nations of Europe, so nearly homogeneous, there are some peculiarities of form and feature, mind and character, which may be generally distinguished by those accustomed to observe them. Though the exceptions are numerous, I will venture to say that not in one instance in a hundred, is the man of sound and

unsophisticated tastes and propensities so likely to be attracted by the female of a foreign stock, as by one of his own, who is more nearly conformed to himself. Shakspeare spoke the language of nature, when he made the senate and people of Venice attribute to the effect of witchcraft, Desdemona's passion for Othello—though, as Coleridge has said, we are to conceive of him not as a negro, but as a high bred Moorish Chief.

If the negro race, as I have contended, be inferior to our own in mind and character, marked by inferiority of form and features, then ours would suffer deterioration from such intermixture. What would be thought of the moral conduct of the parent who should voluntarily transmit disease, or fatuity, or deformity to his offspring? If man be the most perfect work of the Creator, and the civilized European man the most perfect variety of the human race, is he not criminal who would desecrate and deface God's fairest work; estranging it further from the image of himself, and conforming it more nearly to that of the brute. I have heard it said, as if it afforded an argument, that the African is as well satisfied of the superiority of his own complexion, form and features, as we can be of ours. If this were true, as it is not, would any one be so recreant to his own civilization, as to say that his opinion ought to weigh against ours—that there is no universal standard of truth and grace and beauty—that the Hottentot Venus may perchance possess as great perfection of form as the Medicean? It is true, the licentious passions of men overcome the natural repugnance, and find transient gratification in intercourse with females of the other race. But this is a very different thing from making her the associate of life, the companion of the bosom and the hearth. Him who would contemplate such an alliance for himself, or regard it with patience, when proposed for a son, or daughter, or sister, we should esteem a degraded wretch—with justice, certainly, if he were found among ourselves—and the estimate would not be very different if he were found in Europe. It is not only in defence of ourselves, of our country, and of our own generation, that we refuse to emancipate our slaves, but to defend our posterity and race from degeneracy and degradation.

Are we not justified then in regarding as criminals, the fanatical agitators whose efforts are intended to bring about the evils I have described? It is sometimes said that their zeal is generous and disinterested, and that their motives may be praised, though their conduct be condemned. But I have little faith in the good motives of those who pursue bad ends. It is not for us to scrutinize the hearts of men, and we can only judge of them by the tendency of their actions. There is much truth in what was said by Coleridge. "I have never known a trader in philanthropy who was not wrong in heart somehow or other. Individuals so distinguished, are usually unhappy in their family relations—men not benevolent or beneficent to individuals, but almost hostile to them, yet lavishing money and labor and time on the race—the abstract notion." The prurient love of notoriety actuates some. There is much luxury in sentiment, especially if it can be indulged at the expense of others; and if there be added some

share of envy or malignity, the temptation to indulgence is almost irresistible. But certainly they may be justly regarded as criminal, who obstinately shut their eyes and close their ears to all instruction with respect to the true nature of their actions.

It must be manifest to every man of sane mind that it is impossible for them to achieve ultimate success; even if every individual in our country, out of the limits of the slave-holding states, were united in their purposes. They cannot have even the miserable triumph of St. Domingo—of advancing through scenes of atrocity, blood and massacre to the restoration of barbarism. They may agitate and perplex the world for a time. They may excite to desperate attempts and particular acts of cruelty and horror, but these will always be suppressed or avenged at the expense of the objects of their truculent philanthropy. But short of this, they can hardly be aware of the extent of the mischief they perpetrate. As I have said, their opinions, by means to us inscrutable, do very generally reach our slave population. What human being, if unfavorably distinguished by outward circumstances, is not ready to believe when he is told that he is the victim of injustice? Is it not cruelty to make men restless and dissatisfied in their condition, when no effort of theirs can alter it? The greatest injury is done to their characters, as well as to their happiness. Even if no such feelings or designs should be entertained or conceived by the slave, they will be attributed to him by the master, and all his conduct scanned with a severe and jealous scrutiny. Thus distrust and aversion are established, where, but for mischievous interference, there would be confidence and good will, and a sterner control is exercised over the slave who thus becomes the victim of his cruel advocates.

An effect is sometimes produced on the minds of slave holders, by the publications of the self-styled philanthropists, and their judgments staggered and consciences alarmed. It is natural that the oppressed should hate the oppressor. It is still more natural that the oppressor should hate his victim. Convince the master that he is doing injustice to his slave, and he at once begins to regard him with distrust and malignity. It is a part of the constitution of the human mind, that when circumstances of necessity or temptation induce men to continue in the practice of what they believe to be wrong, they become desperate and reckless of the degree of wrong. I have formerly heard of a master who accounted for his practising much severity upon his slaves, and exacting from them an unusual degree of labor, by saying that the thing (slavery) was altogether wrong, and therefore it was well to make the greatest possible advantage out of it. This agitation occasions some slave holders to hang more loosely on their country. Regarding the institution as of questionable character, condemned by the general opinion of the world, and one which must shortly come to an end, they hold themselves in readiness to make their escape from the evil which they anticipate. Some sell their slaves to new masters (always a misfortune to the slave,) and remove themselves to other societies, of manners and habits, uncongenial to their own. And though we may suppose

that it is only the weak and the timid who are liable to be thus affected, still it is no less an injury and public misfortune. Society is kept in an unquiet and restless state, and every sort of improvement is retarded.

Some projectors suggest the education of slaves, with a view to prepare them for freedom—as if they were any method of a man's being educated to freedom, but by himself. The truth is, however, that supposing that they are shortly to be emancipated, and that they have the capacities of any other race, they are undergoing the very best education which it is possible to give. They are in the course of being taught habits of regular and patient industry, and this is the first lesson which is required. I suppose, that their most zealous advocates would not desire that they should be placed in the high places of society immediately upon their emancipation, but that they should begin their course of freedom as laborers, and raise themselves afterwards as their capacities and characters might enable them. But how little would what are commonly called the rudiments of education, add to their qualifications as laborers? But for the agitation which exists, however, their education would be carried further than this. There is a constant tendency in our society to extend the sphere of their employments, and consequently to give them the information which is necessary to the discharge of those employments. And this for the most obvious reason, it promotes the master's interest. How much would it add to the value of a slave, that he should be capable of being employed as a clerk, or be able to make calculations as a mechanic? In consequence, however, of the fanatical spirit which has been excited, it has been thought necessary to repress this tendency by legislation, and to prevent their acquiring the knowledge of which they might make a dangerous use. If this spirit were put down, and we restored to the consciousness of security, this would be no longer necessary, and the process of which I have spoken would be accelerated. Whenever indications of superior capacity appeared in a slave, it would be cultivated; gradual improvement would take place, until they might be engaged in as various employments as they were among the ancients—perhaps even liberal ones. Thus, if in the adorable providence of God, at a time and in a manner which we can neither foresee nor conjecture, they are to be rendered capable of freedom and to enjoy it, they would be prepared for it in the best and most effectual, because in the most natural and gradual manner. But fanaticism hurries to its effect at once. I have heard it said, God does good, but it is by imperceptible degrees; the devil is permitted to do evil, and he does it in a hurry. The beneficent processes of nature are not apparent to the senses. You cannot see the plant grow, or the flower expand. The volcano, the earthquake and the hurricane, do their work of desolation in a moment. Such would be the desolation, if the schemes of fanatics were permitted to have effect. They do all that in them lies to thwart the beneficent purposes of Providence. The whole tendency of their efforts is to aggravate present suffering, and to cut off the chance of future improvement, and in all their bearings and results, have produced, and are likely to produce, nothing but "pure, unmixed, dephlemated, defecated evil."

If Wilberforce or Clarkson were living, and it were inquired of them, "can you be sure that you have promoted the happiness of a single human being?" I imagine that, if they considered conscientiously, they would find it difficult to answer in the affirmative. If it were asked, "can you be sure that you have not been the cause of suffering, misery and death to thousands?"—when we recollect that they probably stimulated the exertions of the *amis des nois* in France, and that through the efforts of these, the horrors of St. Domingo were perpetrated—I think they must hesitate long to return a decided negative. It might seem cruel, if we could, to convince a man who has devoted his life to what he esteemed a good and generous purpose, that he has been doing only evil—that he has been worshipping a horrid fiend, in the place of the true God. But fanaticism is in no danger of being convinced. It is one of the mysteries of our nature, and of the divine government, how utterly disproportioned to each other are the powers of doing evil and of doing good. The poorest and most abject instrument, that is utterly imbecile for any purpose of good, seems sometimes endowed with almost the powers of Omnipotence for mischief. A mole may inundate a province—a spark from a forge may conflagrate a city—a whisper may separate friends—a rumor may convulse an empire: but when we would do benefit to our race or country, the purest and most chastened motives, the most patient thought and labor, with the humblest self-distrust, are hardly sufficient to assure us that the results may not disappoint our expectations, and that we may not do evil instead of good. But are we therefore to refrain from efforts to benefit our race and country? By no means: but these motives, this labor and self-distrust, are the only conditions upon which we are permitted to hope for success. Very different indeed is the course of those, whose precipitate and ignorant zeal would overturn the fundamental institutions of society, uproot its peace and endanger its security, in pursuit of a distant and shadowy good, of which they themselves have formed no definite conception—whose atrocious philosophy would sacrifice a generation—nd more than one generation—for any hypothesis.

ART. VII.—THE STATE OF GEORGIA.*

GEORGIA:—HER SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, MINERALS, RESOURCES, &c., &c.

Dr. Johnson said, that when a nobleman appeared as an author, his merit should be handsomely acknowledged. Without subscribing to the justice of this sentiment, I will add, that when a Southerner appears as an author, his merit should be handsomely acknowledged. We are so much in need of authors, that when one appears above the dark horizon of our

* "Statistics of the State of Georgia, including an account of its Natural, Civil and Ecclesiastical History, together with a particular description of each county, notices of the manners and customs of its aboriginal tribes, and a correct map of the State. By George White. Savannah: W. Thorne Williams." 1849. 8vo. pp. 617.

benighted section, we should point with feelings of gratitude to the light of the star, almost solitary and alone, that beams upon the amplitude of darkness which surrounds us. This consideration will induce a mild treatment of Mr. White's case, when it might appear that justice would demand the use of the knife. The object of the present paper will be to show Georgia as she is, so far as it can be done by analysis of the book before us, with the help of a few other meagre materials which we have at our command, and to point out some of the defects of the volume which we are reviewing.

Georgia extends from the Blue Ridge Mountains, on the north, to the Okeefeenokee Swamp on the south, and from the Chattahochee river on the west, to the Savannah on the east. From South-Carolina, on the east, it is separated by a line running from the mouth of the Savannah river up that stream to the confluence of the Tugaloo and Keowee, and thence along the most northern branch of the Tugaloo until it intersects the northern boundaries of South-Carolina. From North-Carolina and Tennessee on the north, it is separated by a line commencing on a summit of the Blue Ridge, where the same is crossed by the 35th degree of north latitude, and terminating at Nickajack. From Alabama, on the west, it is separated by the Chattahochee, running from its southern boundary up to a position near West Point, and then by a line running thence directly to Nickajack. Several attempts have been made by commissioners to settle the line between Georgia and Florida on the south. All attempts at a definite settlement have, as yet, failed. This line, however, is somewhere near a direct course from the mouth of the Flint river to the source of the St. Mary's, thence along that stream to the point where it empties into the ocean.

Georgia is situated between 30° 21′ 39″ and 35° north latitude, and 81° and 84° 53′ 38″ west longitude from Greenwich, and 3° 46′ and 7° 39′ 26″ west longitude from Washington City.

Its length from north to south is	372	miles.
Its breadth from east to west is	256	"
Square miles	63,397½	
Acres	40,574,400	

"No State in the Union presents a richer field for the geologist than Georgia. With a territory embracing the southern extremity of the Great Atlantic chain of mountains, extending across them to the N. W. into the valley of the Mississippi, running to the S. W. into the cretaceous slope of the Gulf of Mexico, and occupying along its eastern boundary a wide belt of territory, it contains most of the important geological formations.

"Commencing at the Atlantic Ocean, and spreading out from 100 to 150 miles to the west, an extensive plain of a *tertiary formation* rises from the level of the sea, and gradually swells up to a height of about 500 feet, at a line passing near the head of navigation of the rivers Savannah, Ogeechee, Oconee and Ocmulgee, where it meets a primary formation. Between the Ocmulgee and Flint rivers it leaves the primary formation to the right, and rests on the cretaceous from a point nearly midway between Macon and Knoxville, by a line running in a S. W. direction to another point between Petanla Creek and Fort Gaines on the Chattahoochee river.

"Bounded by the last mentioned line to the S. E., and by the southern edge of the primary, as indicated by the heads of navigation in the Flint and Chattahoochee rivers, the *cretaceous* formation extends from Alabama into Georgia, forming an acute triangle. The *primary*, or non-fossiliferous, bounded on the east by the tertiary and cretaceous formations, as described above, crosses the state from N. E. to S. W., with a width of 160 miles at the northern limit, and 100 at the southern. The Blue Ridge range of mountains passes near its western edge, and forms the most elevated land of the state, varying in height from 1,200 to 4,000 feet. From this crest there is a gradual descent to the east, by a series of parallel and undulating ridges, until the tertiary plain is reached. On the west the descent is much more precipitous. The western boundary of the primary is not very accurately established, but is believed to lie not far from a line running nearly north and south through the centre of Gilmer county, and continued in the same direction to near Canton, in Cass county; thence to the western base of the Allatoona Mountain on the

Etowah river, where it turns to the S. W., and, passing near Van Wert, in Paulding county, and along the northern base of the Dugdown Mountain to the Alabama line.

"The north-west part of the State, bounded to the east and south by the western limit of the primary, consists of a *transition*, or older fossiliferous formation, except the extreme N. W. corner, where the *carboniferous* occurs." Pp. 14 and 15.

Georgia embraces every variety of soil, climate and productions. While the inhabitants of Southern and Middle Georgia are being parched with heat, frequently so intense as to prevent comfortable rest, even at night, the more northern climate, among the mountains, is such as to render necessary a blanket in order to comfortable repose by sleep. The sky is of a deep blue, and it is said by those who know, that a more lovely heaven does not smile upon the classic land of Italia than upon the highly favored inhabitants of Georgia. The light sandy soil of the cordon of islets which border the sea-coast of this State produces the fine and valuable description of cotton known as the "Sea Island." In the south are the tide swamp lands producing immense quantities of rice. The soil of these lands vary as they are situated upon the sea-shore, or upon larger or smaller rivers. On the Savannah they are very extensive, and are cultivated more than twenty miles from the brackish marsh up the river, and are considered the most valuable lands in the state. Next to these lands are those on the Altamaha river, which, in width, are equal to those of the Savannah. They do not extend from the marshes up more than sixteen miles. Beyond this, the freshets render them valueless, except for timber. Their soil has more of vegetable mould than the lands on the Savannah, and they are more easily cultivated. Their products are rice, black-seed cotton, Indian corn, and sugar-cane. Next come the tide lands of the Ogeechee, extending ten miles up from the marshes, which produce rice, but are not very well adapted to cotton. The tide lands of the great St. Illa are not as broad as the others, but are productive and fertile twenty miles up from the marshes, yielding good crops of rice and cotton. They are not so much liable to freshets as some others.

The inland swamp lands produce abundantly, but unless there be contiguous a reservoir of water, the produce is uncertain. Black-seed cotton is produced on the oak lands adjoining the inland swamps, though these lands are said to be of inferior quality. About sixty or seventy miles from the coast begin the pine lands, or, as they are sometimes called, "the pine barrens," which have heretofore been chiefly valuable for the immense quantity of timber which has been annually prepared for market. Within a short time past the attention of people has been turned to the manufacture of tar, pitch and turpentine, from the pines growing on these lands, and the time is at hand when these pine barrens will not afford the least source of wealth and prosperity to the citizens of Georgia. The middle region of the state contains land of a red, rich, loamy soil, producing tobacco, cotton, and all the grains. It was once very productive, but owing to the system of cultivation adopted by our planters who have raised upon it year after year, with scarce any intermission, large crops of cotton, it has become, in many counties, much impoverished. Large gullies, and red barren hill-sides, often greet the eye in places which were once as fertile as any under the sun. Our planters are becoming awake to the folly of their past course, and hill-side ditching, manuring, and a judicious rotation in crops, together with occasional rest to the land, is doing much to restore the soil to its virgin fertility. Much still remains to be accomplished, and he who will do most towards setting the example of improving our land, will be our greatest benefactor. We now have our yearly agricultural State Fair, which is doing a great deal to stimulate our planters to an honorable emulation in producing upon Georgia soil, in

the largest quantities, every thing needful to our peace, prosperity and happiness.

We cannot agree with our author in the assertion that the lands in the south-western part of the state, between the Chattahoochee and Flint rivers, "are of inexhaustible fertility." Our observation, which is confirmed by the assurance of many intelligent and respectable planters, teaches us, that although these lands when first cleared are very productive, they are not very durable. Being of a light, sandy soil, they produce fine crops of cotton, and sometimes sugar-cane, for a few years, and then become exhausted, when resort must be had to improvements to render them fertile again. These lands are cheaper in proportion to their fertility than any others in Georgia.

Let us turn now to the most interesting part of the state, known as Cherokee Georgia. This is in the north. The valleys here are exceedingly rich, producing wheat, corn, Irish potatoes, beans, peas, onions, &c. In some places cotton is extensively raised, but the crop is not so certain as in other parts of the state. This part of the territory of Georgia is peculiarly a grain country, so far as the valleys are concerned, while the mountains yield the more valuable minerals, gold, iron, marble, granite, limestone, &c. The land here is more costly than in any other part of the state, ranging from ten to thirty dollars per acre, while in south-western Georgia lands of equal fertility range from three to ten dollars per acre. The difference in the price is traceable to the fact that the lands of Cherokee Georgia are much more durable than those in the south-western part of the state—it being the fact, that in the former portion there is land which was cultivated by the Indian before the white man's axe ever echoed back from the hills the sound of the march of civilization, which now produces from fifty to seventy-five bushels per acre. Cherokee Georgia is not the place to raise cotton, but it is to be the granary and the workshop of the balance of the state. Its fields will produce corn to feed the operatives who are to direct its water-power in manufacturing the cotton which is raised in the more southern parts of the state, and in digging out from the bowels of the earth the minerals which are to regulate the inland commerce, and form the implements of husbandry, life and peace, and, in case of necessity, of war, death and destruction.

Mr. White says, "In the country bordering on the Savannah river, as far up as Elbert, and extending across to Broad river, the land, though long cultivated, is still productive; and we know of bodies of land in this section of the state, particularly in Oglethorpe county, which have been cultivated for more than half a century, and which still produce 700 and 800 pounds of cotton to the acre." P. 38.

Our author enumerates upwards of fifty streams in the state of Georgia which deserve and wear the name of rivers. A very cursory glance at the map of the state will show that her water resources are immense. The streams of this state alone, which pour the volume of their waters from the mountain springs into the bosom of the Atlantic and the Gulf, would supply sufficient power in eligible sites, to manufacture all the cotton grown in the world, or to grind all the grain produced in Uncle Sam's wide dominions. In addition to this, the Savannah, the Altamaha, the Oconee, the Ocmulgee, the St. Mary's, the Ogeechee, the Flint, the Chattahoochee, the Coosa, and various others, bear upon their bosoms steamboats, sloops, cotton, and flat-boats, laden with the productions of Georgia soil, and going to swell the tide of commerce upon which depend the wealth, power and prosperity of our nation.

Mr. White has in his book some interesting extracts from the MSS. of the late Col. Benjamin Hawkins, many years agent of the United States

Government in its transactions with the Creek Indians, formerly residing in this State. We give the following in reference to the origin of this tribe, as being most interesting:

"The origin of the name Creek is uncertain. The tradition is, that it was given by white people, from the number of creeks and water-courses in the country. The Indian name is Muscogee. The Creeks came from the West. They have a tradition among them that there is, in the Fork of the Red River, west of the Mississippi, two mounds of earth; that at this place the Cussetuhs, Conetuhs and Chickasaws found themselves; that being distressed by wars with red people, they crossed the Mississippi, and directing their course eastwardly, they crossed the falls of Tallapoosa above Tookaubatche, settled below the falls of Chattahoochee, and spread out from thence to Ocmulgee, Oconee, Savannah, and down on the sea-coast towards Charleston. Here they first saw white people, and from hence they have been compelled to retire back again to their present settlements."—P. 28.

"According to the census of 1840, the population of Georgia amounted to

210,634 white persons, males.
197,161 white persons, females.
1,374 free colored persons, males.
1,379 free colored persons, females.
139,335 slaves, males.
141,609 slaves, females.

Total.....691,492*

"Of this number 574 are computed to be engaged in mining, 209,383 in agriculture, 2,428 in commerce, 7,984 in manufactures and trades, 262 in navigation of the seas, 352 in navigation of canals, lakes and rivers, 1,250 in the liberal professions."

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE POPULATION FOR FIFTY-FIVE YEARS.

1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.
82,548	162,686	252,433	344,773

1830.	1840.	1845.
516,823	691,392	774,325

We will here give a list of the state officers, &c., together with other interesting matter, for which we are indebted to the Carolina and Georgia Almanac for 1850:

Governor.—George W. Towns, (of Talbot,) salary	$3,000
Secretaries.—John T. Smith, (of Troup,)	1,000
" Julius M. Patton, (of Cass,)	1,000
" Benjamin F. Gullett, (of Talbot,)	1,000
Messenger.—Charles C. Rice, (of Baldwin,)	1,600
Secretary of State.—George W. Harrison, (of Randolph,)	1,600
Comptroller-General.—Ezekiel S. Candler, (of Carroll,)	1,600
Surveyor-General.—James R. Butts, (of Sumpter,)	1,600
Treasurer.—William B. Tinsley, (of Baldwin,)	1,600
State Librarian.—Robert Micklejohn, (of Baldwin,)	600
President of Senate.—William B. Wofford, (of Habersham.)	
Secretary of Senate.—Luther J. Glenn, (of Henry,)	600
Speaker of House of Representatives.—John W. Anderson, (Savannah,)	600
Clerk.—B. K. Harrison, (of Stewart,)	600
Director of Central Bank.—D. C. Campbell, (of Baldwin,)	1,200
Cashier.—A. M. Nisbet, (of Baldwin,)	500
Principal Keeper of Penitentiary.—W. W. Williamson, (of Cherokee,)	1,600
Book Keeper.—H. G. Williams, (of Talbot.)	
Inspector.—A. M. Horton, (of Baldwin,)	500
Physicians.—Drs. Tomlinson, and George W. Fort, (of Baldwin,)	400
Chaplain.—Rev. William Johnson, (of Baldwin,)	
Trustees of Lunatic Asylum.—Dr. Tomlinson Fort, Dr. H. K. Green, and P. B. Stubbs.	
Resident Physician and Superintendent.—Dr. T. F. Green	1,500

* It is believed the federal census of the present year will show one million inhabitants of Georgia.—(*Ed.*)

This State is divided into ninety-four counties. Each county is entitled to one or two representatives in the General Assembly in proportion to its population. Most of the counties send only one representative, while thirty-seven are entitled to two. There are in the State forty-seven senatorial districts, each of which is entitled to send one member to the upper house of the Legislature. The State also is divided into eight congressional districts, each of which sends a member to Congress.

The first district, represented by Joseph W. Jackson, Democrat, consists of Appling, Bryan, Bulloch, Camden, Chatham, Clinch, Effingham, Emanuel, Glynn, Liberty, Lowndes, McIntosh, Montgomery, Scriven, Telfair, Tatnall, Thomas, Ware, Wayne—19 counties.

The second district, represented by M. J. Welborn, Democrat, consists of Baker, Decatur, Dooly, Early, Houston, Irwin, Lee, Macon, Marion, Muscogee, Pulaski, Randolph, Stewart, Sumter—14 counties.

The third Congressional district, represented by Allen P. Owen, Whig, consists of Bibb, Butts, Crawford, Jasper, Jones, Monroe, Pike, Talbot, Twiggs, Upson, Wilkinson—11 counties.

The fourth district, represented by Hon. A. Haralson, Democrat, consists of Campbell, Carroll, Coweta, De Kalb, Harris, Fayette, Heard, Henry, Meriwether, Troup—10 counties.

The fifth district, represented by Thomas C. Hackett, Democrat, consists of Cass, Chattooga, Cherokee, Cobb, Dade, Gordon, Floyd, Forsyth, Gwinnett, Lumpkin, Murray, Walker, Paulding, Gilmer, Union—15 counties.

The sixth district, represented by Howell Cobb, Democrat, consists of Clark, Franklin, Hall, Habersham, Jackson, Madison, Newton, Rabun, Walton—9 counties.

The seventh district, represented by Alexander H. Stephens, Whig, consists of Baldwin, Greene, Hancock, Laurens, Morgan, Oglethorpe, Putnam, Taliafero, Washington—9 counties.

The eighth district, represented by Robert Toombs, Whig, consists of Burke, Columbia, Elbert, Jefferson, Lincoln, Richmond, Warren, Wilkes —8 counties.

The senators in congress from Georgia are—J. M. Berrien, Savannah, and William C. Dawson, Greensboro'—both Whigs.

Here is a table, taken from p. 58 of the work before us, showing the annual Revenue and Expenditure of the State of Georgia:

REVENUES.

General tax, viz., capitation-tax on free white males, (from 21 to 60)—slaves—free persons of color—lawyers—physicians—factors and brokers; —tax on land, per acre, according to its classification as to quality—on town lots, merchandise, ferries, toll-bridges and turnpikes, the returned value—on money at interest—capital of manufacturing companies—capital of banks of other States employed in this, and sales of merchandise by factors, amount returned—and on pleasure carriages and billiard tables, the number returned.

Net amount, 1848, about	$265,000
Tax on bank stock, special,	19,300
Dividends on bank stock, "Education Fund," $262,300	19,250
Miscellaneous sources (say)	10,000
	$313,550

EXPENDITURES.

Legislative Department:		
Pay of members and officers of the General Assembly, (average of biennial sessions $60,000,) making annual average	30,000	
Printing for the Legislature, (average $10,000,) annual,	5,000	
		35,000
Executive Department:		
Salary of Governor,	3,000	
" " 3 Secretaries, at $1,000 each,	3,000	
" " Secretary of State,	1,600	
" " Treasurer,	1,600	
" " Comptroller General,	1,600	
" " Surveyor General,	1,600	
		12,400
Judiciary Department:		
Salary of 3 Judges Supreme Court, at $2,500 each,	7,500	
" " Reporter of Supreme Court,	1,000	
" " 11 Circuit Judges, at $1,800 each,	19,800	
" " 11 Solicitors General, at $225 each,	2,475	
		30,775
Public Debt, reduction of	50,000*	
" " Interest on	111,500	
		161,500
Poor Schools, aid of,		19,250
Lunatic Asylum,		11,625
Deaf and Dumb Asylum,		4,500
Contingent Fund,		10,000
Printing Fund,		2,000
Military Purposes,		1,500
Miscellaneous Appropriations, annual average, (say)		5,000
		$293,550

Under the head of the judiciary, Mr. White presents the following analysis:—

"1. A Court of Errors and Appeals, consisting of three Judges, elected by the Legislature for six years. This is an appellate tribunal for the correction of errors in law and equity from the Superior Courts. The terms are held in Savannah, Milledgeville, Macon, Hawkinsville, Americus, Talbotton, Decatur, Gainesville, and Cassville.

"2. Superior Court; Judges elected by the Legislature for four years. This is a court of general jurisdiction, both as a court of common law and equity, held twice every year in each county in the State, and has the power of correcting all errors in the inferior judicatories, and exclusive jurisdiction in all criminal cases, and in the trial of titles to real estate.

"3. Inferior Court: Consisting of five justices in each county, who are elected by the people for the term of four years. The terms of this court are two in each year. This court has concurrent jurisdiction with the Superior Court, in actions of debt, trespass, &c. &c., and has the supervisory power in their counties, over bridges, ferries, roads, public buildings, &c., &c., and also the powers of a Court of Ordinary, in all matters in relation to the estates of deceased persons, the care of the poor, and in all actions other than those in which the title to land is involved.

"4. Justices' Courts: Consisting of two justices for each militia district, in every county, who are elected by the people of their district. They have jurisdiction in cases of debt, when the same does not exceed thirty dollars.

"The laws of Georgia were compiled by Marbury and Crawford, from its earliest settlement as a British province in 1775 to 1800; and by Augustine S. Clayton from the year 1800 to the year 1810, inclusive; by L. Q. C. Lamar from 1810 to 1820, and by William C. Dawson from 1820 to 1830, inclusive.

"Digests of these laws have been made by Prince and Hotchkiss, and an Analysis of the Statutes of Georgia, compiled by Howell Cobb, Esq.—P. 61.

The constitution of Georgia provided for the establishment in the State of a "Supreme Court for the Correction of Errors." Yet, notwithstanding the obvious necessity of such a tribunal, it was 68 years before it was

* And all surplus amounts unexpended.

established. The consequence was, that there being in the state a half dozen or more Superior Courts, as they are styled, of equal grade, several very diverse systems of practice sprung up; and the law, especially the common law, meant as many different things as there were Judges of the Superior Courts. We had no uniform system of practice; and the evils consequent upon this state of things were innumerable. At length, in 1845, the Legislature established the tribunal which was provided for by the Constitution, and Joseph Henry Lumpkin, of Athens, Eugenius A. Nisbet, of Macon, and Hiram Warner, of Greenville,—all distinguished for their legal abilities, were appointed Judges by the Legislature. They each hold their office for the term of six months.

These Judges fill their places with distinguished ability. The decisions in common law and equity which have been made by them, already fill seven good octavo volumes. The law, as expounded in these reports, commands the highest respect all over the Union. No Court which has not been in existence longer, can lay any higher claim to a clearer and more able exposition of legal principles. Chancellor Kent in his life, to whom Mr. Kelly—first reporter, now dead—sent his first volume, pronounced the decisions of the Judges clear, able, and made according to the principles of the common law, which, he thought, had been too much neglected in this country through the ignorance, carelessness, and presumption of our Judges.

Judge Warner is the controlling spirit upon the Supreme Bench, so acknowledged by all classes, and especially the profession. He gives his decisions in a clear, terse, vigorous style, forgetful of ornament in language, and of all things else save an explicit expression of the law. Judges Lumpkin and Nesbit are men of undoubted ability, and are good lawyers. The fault we have to find with them is, that they load their decisions with too much rhetoric, and too frequently step aside to say something pretty, when plainer and more succinct language would better explain the principles of the law. Judge Warner's language is purely legal language, not too dry, nor, at the same time, too flowery. It reminds you of the language of Kent, Story, and Blackstone. On the other hand, Judge Nesbit's language is better suited for a commencement oration, and Judge Lumpkin's for the ardent declamation of the advocate. Nevertheless, as I have already said, all three of these Judges are able and distinguished men, and every Georgian has cause to be proud of the incumbents of the Supreme Bench in his State.

Immediately upon the establishment of this Court, it began to root out the loose and illegal practice which had sprung up in our Circuit Courts. The old and artful counsellor found that all his tricks and chicanery would no longer avail him. The pettifogger found that he must take more care in the preparation of his declarations, answers, and bills in equity. The pedant at the bar found his favorite dogmas overturned, and the weak-minded Judge upon the bench below, experienced the chagrin and mortification of having some of his favorite decisions overruled. Now the lawyer, instead of spending his time over the card-table, and *around* the *bar*, instead of *within* the *bar*, depending upon the inspiration of brandy and his ready wit, instead of the *viginti annorum lucubrationes*, had to spend his time in his library, pouring over the dusty and cob-webbed tomes so long neglected, and making out briefs which he never needed before.

All this was too much. The Supreme Court raised about its ears a storm which, at one time, threatened to sweep away its existence. Empty-headed Judges, whose decisions were overruled, demagogued it—pettifoggers, scribblers, would-be lawyers, prated and fretted, and all united to overthrow a tribunal whose operation required judges and lawyers to have

some brains. But it was "*no go*"—as the New-York law reformers wish to render the words *ne exeat*. The Court gained more and more in the favor and affections of the people, and it is now founded upon a rock, permanent and steady. Never had the Georgia Legislature even, made such an ass of itself—though much addicted to such tricks—as it would have done, had it repealed the statute establishing the Supreme Court according to the Constitution of the State.

[To be continued.)

PROGRESS AND RESOURCES OF THE SOUTHERN STATES.

1.—THE COAL MINES OF ALABAMA COMPARED WITH THOSE OF THE OTHER STATES.

In the first annual report of 1850, of the Geology of Alabama, by M. Tuomey, Esq., State Geologist and Professor in the University of that state, there are the following remarks upon Alabama Coal, which we regard as of great interest:

The earliest notice of the use of Alabama coal that I have been able to find, is contained in Silliman's Journal, vol. xxvi., 1834, in a note by Dr. Alexander Jones, of Mobile, which, notwithstanding unavoidable mistakes, I have thought of sufficient interest to insert here.

BITUMINOUS COAL.

This state is very rich in bituminous coal, of a most excellent quality. It is in every respect equal, if not superior to the best English coal. I am using some of it in my little laboratory. It is very heavy, and burns with a good flame, and gives out much heat. It also yields the carburetted hydrogen gas in immense quantity. The vein, or formation of this coal, is very extensive. It is first seen in the bed of the Black Warrior river, near Tuscaloosa, and next appears on the surface of the ground, to the north-east and east of that town, and pursues that course till it crosses the Alabama and Coosa rivers at their falls, or just above them. It passes, probably, for some distance into Georgia, and not improbably, in its south-western or western direction, into Mississippi.

Its principal width is found in Shelby and Bibb counties, where it is forty miles wide; it occupies the whole ground under the surface, and is covered by superficial patches of hard or soft slate stone, or shale, other minerals being rarely found near it. Blacksmiths in its neighborhood dig it up, and work it in their furnaces. It is also used in an iron foundry in Shelby county. The land is smartly broken. The growth consists principally of chestnut, oak and pine, and being more or less poor, it has never, much of it, passed yet out of the hands of the general government, and can therefore be bought by any one who wishes to own it at $1 25 an acre.

In the winter season this coal is brought down the river to Mobile from Tuscaloosa, in flat-bottomed boats, and sold at the same price as the Liverpool coal, or at from $1 to $1 50 per barrel. The strata of this rich and extensive coal bed have an inclination of a few degrees to the S. S. E.

I presume you will, ere long, receive a correct geological account of this extensive and interesting coal formation, from some gentleman of the Alabama University at Tuscaloosa, which is a very favorable point for observing it.

The facts which I have communicated were obtained from an eminent lawyer of this place, who had visited that region, and from a laboring man, who had worked the coal in a blacksmith's shop, which he owned in that region. He informed me, that having worked at the coal mines in Virginia, near Richmond, he considered this coal deposit the richest, and as containing the best coal he had ever seen.

For domestic purposes, the Alabama coal has been sufficiently long in use in the state to have its quality in this relation settled. In Tuscaloosa it is used in the houses, to the almost entire exclusion of wood. The price varies from ten to twelve cents per bushel. It is also used in Mobile for similar purposes, but to what extent I do not know.*

During the months of August, September and October, (1849,) there were about 200 persons engaged in the coal trade of the state; and as only three beds are worked under ground, the rest of the coal raised is taken from the bed of the river, and streams, where of course operations can only be continued during the low stages of the water; and in general, it is only the seasons of leisure that can be devoted to the business by farmers, who are the principal proprietors.

It has already been stated, that the obstruction of the Warrior, which terminates the navigation of that river, is occasioned by the coal measures. Above this point the river is only navigable during freshets, at which times alone coal is carried to Mobile. The boats used are common flat-boats, with gunwales made of solid timbers; the first class have a capacity of about 2000 bushels, draw 20 to 30 inches of water, and cost $70, or thereabouts. Coal is brought down the river to Tuscaloosa at about four cents a bushel, a distance of 50 miles, and thence to Mobile, a distance of 355 miles, at an additional cost of nearly four cents; the boat being a dead loss in either case, as it brings but a few dollars.

Coal is brought to Tuscaloosa in wagons from those beds exposed 5 or 6 miles east of the river, and 10 to 18 miles from the city. When the plank road, at present in contemplation, is constructed, it will greatly facilitate operations in that direction, more particularly as it is intended to reach the iron region of Roup's valley.

It will be seen from the map, that the Warrior runs through the centre of the coal field; and its improvement, 75 or 100 miles above Tuscaloosa, would leave little to be desired, in relation to the transportation of coal from this region; for it is supposed by those who have examined it, that with a very moderate outlay, the river below Tuscaloosa may be rendered navigable through the summer for light-draught stern-wheel steamers.

The attempts at improving this river, up to the present time, have been conducted on two different plans, the one in relation to its navigation at low water, and the other to high water navigation. The first and most expensive operations consisted in the construction of jetties, &c., with the view of turning the water into a narrower channel. The plan appears to be good, but the execution was defective. The jetties were, in many cases, not connected with the banks, and not reaching above water, they became dangerous, submerged islands, to boats coming down at high water.

Later improvements have been altogether conducted with the view to the removal of obstructions to high water navigation, and consequently, it became necessary to undo, in many cases, what had already been done, at considerable expense.

The work principally consisted in the removal, from the shoals, of prominent points of rock, widening channels, cutting away dead timber, &c. The execution of this was entrusted to sensible men, who knew from experience the dangers and obstructions of the river, and I can bear testimony to the faithful manner in which they have discharged their duties. The clearest proof of this is found in the fact, that formerly, it required 4 feet rise in the level reaches to produce 1 on the shoals; now, 3 feet is sufficient to give the same rise on the shoals. The nature of the obstructions in the river may be gathered from what

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* Mr. Hanby's account of his attempts at the introduction of Alabama coal into the Mobile market, would furnish an amusing chapter, on the difficulty of diverting any trade from its accustomed channels. The intelligent proprietors of the gas works in that city, however, were not slow to recognize its value as a material for the manufacture of gas; and it has now, where it is known, I believe, a fair reputation. Much of what has heretofore been carried to market, under the name of coal, included everything that resembled it in color; but I know from observation, that those engaged in the business at present, take every reasonable precaution to reject all impurities.

has been said of the geology of this region. The coal measures are made up, as I have shown, of alternations of hard and soft beds; the latter are worn down, or washed away, whilst the former are left, and hence, the bed of the river consists of a succession of level reaches and shoals. In the level portions, beds of coal are generally found, and it would be no difficult task to cut a channel through the shoals, but, without great caution, this would let the water off too fast; and it is easy to see that the whole river might, by continuing the process, be converted into a rapid. In this consists the danger of river improvements, by the removal of shoals.

The alternations of shoals and deep water on the Warrior, fits it, in a peculiar manner, for what engineers call slack water navigation, which is effected by the construction of dams across the river, that converts it into a canal. The dams are passed by either locks or sluices.

I have alluded to this subject because of the intimate connection of the improvement of this river with the developement and interests of the coal field through which it flows.

A glance at the map of the United States and South America, will show the importance of the geographical position of our coal fields. It will be recollected that the Alabama coal fields come down to the head of navigation on the Warrior at Tuscaloosa; and within ten miles of that point on the Cahawba. It may be interesting here to take even a rapid view of the most available deposits of coal, on the Atlantic slope, the Gulf of Mexico, and the region still farther south.

VIRGINIA COAL FIELDS.

Towards the north, the Virginia coal region approaches the sea-board nearer than any other. The Clover Hill pits, situated in Chesterfield county, are connected with the navigation of James river at Port Walthall, by a railroad 22½ miles in length, which cost the company $100,000.

The price of the coal on tide water is $3 to $3 50 per ton, and cost of transportation $1 per ton. At these pits 6000 bushels a day are raised.

At Port Walthall it is shipped down the river for the northern and southern ports.

MARYLAND AND TENNESSEE COAL FIELDS.

The next coal region, along the sea-board, is that of Maryland, at Cumberland. Coal from this region, in 1847, paid for transportation to Baltimore $2 50 per ton, and to Washington, $3 56 per ton. In the former city the price in 1848 was $6 to $6 25 per ton. The transportation on the canal being only one half cent per ton per mile. The length of this canal is 187 miles. These, and the Richmond coal mines, are the most accessible sources of bituminous coal for the Atlantic States.

Of the Tennessee coal fields, Dr. Troost states, that "coal is shipped from various points, but particularly from Kingston; from whence it passes down the Tennessee river more than six hundred miles, to the Ohio, and thence, more than a thousand further, to New-Orleans; making a voyage of no less than *seventeen hundred* miles of inland navigation. From the western margin of the Tennessee coal-fields, a certain quantity of coal is sent down the Cumberland river, nearly an equal distance, to its place of destination."*

ILLINOIS AND KENTUCKY.

The rest of the coal brought down the Mississippi, is, I believe, derived from the Illinois and Kentucky coal fields, of which Mr. Taylor gives us the following statistics: "There is no coal in the Ohio river nearer to its junction with the Mississippi, than Salem, near Shawneetown, 16 miles above the mouth of the first named river. On the Mississippi, it is rather a shorter distance, being sixty miles to Muddy Creek, and thence 25 miles up that creek to the first coal

* Statistics of coal; to which valuable work I am indebted for much of the information contained in this article.

bed there, or 12 miles by land. Some coal operations commenced here some few years ago, having in view the supply of the towns along the Mississippi, as far even as New-Orleans. The present supplies of coal to the lower country are obtained from a vast distance up the Cumberland and Tennessee rivers, but especially from Wheeling, Pittsburg, and the intermediate points, 900 miles farther from the market than the Illinois coal of Muddy creek. The estimated expense of delivering this coal at New-Orleans, by arks, is about $2 25 per ton; while the minimum price of coal there is 25 cents a bushel; $7 50 a ton. In winter time from 50 to 62½ cents per bush., or $12 to $15 per ton, have been occasionally the retail price there. This Muddy Creek coal seam is a horizontal bed 6 or 7 feet thick, above which is another vein, not hitherto worked.

"Coal can be thrown from the mouth of the drift into a boat. Its quality is most excellent, igniting readily, and caking together perfectly, without making much clinker. It has been used for 50 years by the old French settlers, to make edge tools, which have borne a high reputation.

"What is termed St. Louis coal, supplied to the steamers, burns with a good flame, and cements like that of Pittsburg; ashes dark gray, in small quantity, and consumes with little waste. It is often mixed with yellow sulphuret of iron, in flakes, occurring on each face of the sectional fracture; and consequently is not, we understand, in so good repute for the purposes of iron manufacturing."

At Hawsville, on the left bank of the Ohio, 120 miles below Louisville, is a coal bed four feet thick. The upper 18 inches of this bed consist of Cannel coal; the remainder is common bituminous coal, two and a half feet.

The price of this coal at New-Orleans,* was 62½ cents to $1 per barrel, of two and a half bushels. It is in request there for the use of the towboat companies.

Hawsville is about 258 miles above the mouth of the Ohio. The coal seam is nearly horizontal—appearing on both sides the river, in a position remarkably favorable for loading into vessels lying in the Ohio. It is a compact, largely conchoidal coal, producing a bright flame; does not cement or adhere together in burning, but on the contrary, falls into profuse white ashes. Although 700 miles in advance of Pittsburg, it has been hitherto, we are told, unable to compete with that coal, which is floated down the Ohio in arks, and, it is said, can be mined cheaper.

The Hawsville Cannel is especially liked for steam engines. For domestic use we think it is objectionable, on account of the great quantity of very white ashes which are left after combustion, filling up the grates, &c.

CUBA COAL.

In Cuba, a seam of Asphalte, or Chapapote, as it is called, is found about three leagues from Havana. There are other seams of this highly bituminous substance in other parts of the island, and although it is said to be an excellent "combustible, when much flame is a desideratum, for such purposes as evaporation, and for heating furnaces; and in this respect it must be superior to many descriptions of fuel whose proportion of volatile matter is less;" yet I cannot learn that it is gaining ground as a fuel, for even the generation of steam; and it is quite certain that the depot of coal for the Royal Mail Company's steamers,

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* The coal consumed in New-Orleans is brought, principally, down the Mississippi; the price ranges between 75 cents and $1 75 per barrel; 13 of which barrels are estimated equal to a ton. The following table (from the Statistics of Coal) exhibits the increase of consumption of coal in that city for a series of years:

Ys.	Bbls.	Ys.	Bbls.	Ys.	Bbls.	Ys.	Bbls.	Ys.	Bbls.
1830	40,800	1836	85,328	1841	121,233	1844	227,788	1846	262,800
1832	50,000	1838	99,220	1842	140,582	1845	281,600	1847	356,500
1834	60,000	1840	99,919	1843	255,568.				

is supplied by coal imported from the British dominions, as will appear from the following extract:*

"The trade in coals from Great Britain to the West Indies is limited. They are partly required for furnaces, but the principal quantity consists of a particular description of coal for steam purposes, under contract with the British government, and is a trade of comparatively recent origin. The government stations are Jamaica, Antigua and Barbadoes, and some coals go to St. Thomas's. The average price of coals there is about 45s. to 47s., ($10 90 to $11 40,) according to the demand. They have been freighted from London, costing 20s. per ton there. The freight from Newcastle to the West Indies is 27s. 6d. to 30s."

"*English Bituminous Coal imported into the West Indies.*

Years.	Tons.	Years.	Tons.
1831	48,536	1841	71,311
1832	43,980	1844	77,338
1840	82,564	1845	102,339

"*British Coals imported into foreign West Indies.*

1844	26,592
1845	22,154

"In the West Indies, the price of coal varies from 45s. to 47s. per ton for government contracts; it has been occasionally much higher.

"The importation of copper ore from Santiago, and other ports of Cuba, constitute a very considerable portion of the trade of Swansea. The ships employed in the trade are from 300 to 500 tons burden. The chief back freight for these ships is Welsh coal. It was feared by the shippers of this Welsh coal, that the discovery of a supposed bituminous coal of high value, at more than one point within a few miles of a shipping port of the island of Cuba itself, would materially diminish, if not entirely cut off, the market for the supply of the free-burning coals of South Wales. Owing, however, to other circumstances, rather than to any deficiency in the quality of the Cuba asphaltum, there has not, at present, been experienced any change in the importation of foreign coals; but the demand in a tropical climate can never, we think, for obvious reasons, be very extensive."

Beds of asphaltum are also found in Barbadoes.

TEXAS COAL FIELDS.

"Coal is well known to exist abundantly in Texas, although the country has not been geologically examined. There is no doubt but coal prevails at intervals entirely across the country, in a north-east and south-west direction. Its general position is about two hundred miles from the coast.

"On Trinity river, two hundred miles from Galveston, the coal region there was investigated in 1846, and found to be more extensive than was anticipated. A company, under the title of the 'Trinity Mining Coal Company,' was incorporated by an act of the Texan Congress, in 1840. Both anthracite and semi-bituminous coal, somewhat like the Cannel, in appearance, occur here.

"Mineral coal, in great abundance, prevails not far from the Mustang Prairie. It is also found, accompanied with excellent iron ore, in the vicinity of Nacogdoches. According to report, this coal is abundant, rich, and of a fine appearance.

"A bed of coal extends across the Brazos river, towards the Little Brazos and the San Andres, down which stream it may without difficulty be transported at high water.

"Near the city of Austin, on the eastern border of the Colorado, is a peak, called Mount Bonnell, overlooking Austin, and having a fall of seven hundred feet perpendicular, to the bed of the Colorado. This and other hills, although not scientifically examined, are known to contain beds of anthracite coal.

"On the Rio Grande, south-west of Bexar, is a great abundance of bituminous coal. The navigation of this river is reported to be free for eight months in the year."

* Statistics of Coal.

This, I believe, includes all our information on the subject of the Texas coal region.

PANAMA COAL.

The coal of this region appears to be brown coal, or lignite, and like that of Talcahuano, in Chili, is supposed to belong to the tertiary formation. This is the character of the coal, so far as we know, of the whole of South America, nor have we any positive evidence of the existence of true coal on any part of this immense continent. Of the quality of the South American brown coal, we have the most contradictory accounts: by some it is said to be of good quality, whilst by others it is condemned as inferior.

I have thus, I suppose, fairly represented the sources of this fuel that would be likely to come into market in competition with the Alabama coal, on the Gulf of Mexico, and still farther south and west; as well as the prominent conditions under which it is found, so far as they would be likely to affect its price and supply in that market. I do this principally with the view of furnishing data to such of our citizens as may feel disposed to investigate the subject in a commercial point of view.

It now only remains for me, in conclusion, to show the comparative value of our coal, for the purposes to which it is likely to be applied.

Although I have not access to an official report on the coal used in the gas works in the city of Mobile, I am informed that it is highly valued for the manufacture of gas. But even in the absence of this practical knowledge, we have abundant evidence of the adaptation of our coal to this purpose, as well as to other ordinary uses, in the following analyses, for which we are indebted to Sir Charles Lyell:

*Analyses of Bituminous Coal.**

Virginia.	Clover Hill	76.49	13.64	9.87
	Black Heath	80.38	10.27	9.35
	Deep Run	82 90	10.74	6.36
	Powell's	86.54	8.76	4.70
	Alabama	80.96	12.96	6.08

The Virginia coals, which are the most bituminous in the United States, furnish the principal part of the coal used in the gas works of New-York, Philadelphia and Charleston. And until recently, the Black Heath mines furnished the chief supply for the former cities.

The value of coal for the production of gas, other things being equal, will depend on the amount of hydrogen they contain. In the five preceding specimens the hydrogen stands thus:

Clover Hill	5.23
Black Heath	4.08
Deep Run	4.77
Powell's	4.23
Alabama	5.13

And the value of coal, as ordinary fuel, is derived from the carbon and hydrogen. Now these analyses, in this relation, settle the position of the Alabama coal.†

COAL FOR STEAM PURPOSES.

In connection with the value of bituminous coal, when applied to steam navigation, Mr. Trimble gives some experiments made by steamboats on the Ohio. The result is as follows:

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* Mr. P. Henry, Quar. Jour. Geol. Soc. No. 11, p. 270.
† Statistics.

"Four and fifty steamboats, using twenty cords in the twenty-four hours, and running two hundred days per annum, will consume an amount of wood, whose value, at $2 50 per cord, would be $4,500,000
By the use of coal, during the same, and producing similar effect .. 1,500,000

Annual saving $3,000,000

The following considerations are urged in favor of coal:

1. It makes a more uniform and more easily regulated fire than wood.
2. The economy in the use of coal over wood is three-fifths.
3. The weight of equivalent quantities of coal and wood, is as one to three.
4. The bulk do. do. do. one to nine.
5. The labor and expense of putting on board, as one to four."

2.—TOPOGRAPHY OF MIDDLE GEORGIA.

We take the following from a contribution made by Dr. Pendleton, to Fenner's Medical Reports of the South:

That region of country properly known as *Middle Georgia*, and to which this paper relates, is bounded on the south by an isothermal line, running diagonally through the state, about 30° south of west from Augusta to Columbus, varying but little in a direct route through Milledgeville and Macon. The northern line may be considered as running parallel with this from Elbert county on the Savannah river, through Walton, to Heard county on the Chattahoochee. This forms the true isothermal line between Middle and Upper Georgia—the one being suited to the production of cotton, the other almost exclusively restricted to grain.

A latitudinal line running west from a point on the Savannah, would strike nearly a degree higher on the western boundary of the state; but the southern termination of the Alleghany Mountains assumes this diagonal line in Upper Georgia, and I have no doubt impresses itself on all the region below, even to the Atlantic—hence Augusta, in the east, is about as warm as Columbus in the west. This isothermal line runs directly parallel with the shore of the ocean, which seems to be conformed to the general geological aspects of the country. Thus, we perceive a granite ridge extending along the above-mentioned line between Lower and Middle Georgia, over which all the waters of the state and the adjoining states pour themselves in shoals or cataracts, and thence glide on by a gradual and easy descent to the ocean. The Savannah, at Augusta, the Oconee at Milledgeville, the Oakmulgee at Macon, and the Chattahoochee at Columbus, all have impassable reefs, constituting these cities the heads of navigation. The same line crosses Hancock county at the shoals of the Ogeechee, and by Garnett's Mills on Buffalo Creek; and I doubt not every tributary of all these rivers presents the same shoaly appearance in running over this granite ledge, which separates the Plutonic and Metamorphic regions of Georgia from the alluvial or tertiary. No granite is found below this line to the ocean, few rocks of any kind, and no shoals of water; all is a vast pine forest, with a grey, silicious soil, abounding in tertiary fossils, mostly Eocene and Pliocene.

Following the line of this Plutonic ridge, which is about fifteen miles in width, we find numerous deposits of Kaolin, of a beautiful, white variety, which will some day be brought into requisition for the manufacture of porelain ware. This is, doubtless, a decomposition of Serpentine or Felspathic rocks, which, not being able to stand the ravages of time like the everlasting granite, have dissolved to form another mineral of more value to man. In some places, as in Richmond county, these deposits form high cliffs, marking distinctly the ancient shore of the Eocene Sea, which once swept solitarily over the vast plain below.

Above this ridge there seems to have been an ancient valley, now filled with metamorphic rocks, through which the rivers glide with a much more gradual descent than they do higher up the country, where another and another granite ridge rises successively, on one of which rests, in beautiful and majestic proportions, one of the wonders of the new world, the *Stone Mountain of De Kalb.* Beyond this ridge the culture of cotton ceases in Georgia, except in

small patches for domestic use, and perhaps more extensively in the valleys of the Coosa, on the western borders of the state.

The native soil of Middle Georgia is a rich, argillaceous loam, resting on a firm clay foundation. But the face of the country being hilly, and in some places semi-mountainous, much of this good soil has long since been washed into the valleys beneath, under the wretched system of agriculture at first adopted in this country. In some of the richer counties, nearly all the lands have been cut down and appropriated to tillage, a large maximum of which has been worn out, leaving a desolate picture for the traveler to behold. Decaying tenements, red, old hills stripped of their native growth and virgin soil, and washed into deep gullies, with here and there patches of Bermuda grass, and stunted pine shrubs struggling for a scanty subsistence on what was once one of the richest soils in America.

The water courses have received the same tincture of the hills, especially after heavy rains, holding in solution a large proportion of alumina and the red oxide of iron, and presenting a muddy and forbidding aspect to one accustomed to the clear, pellucid streams of many portions of our country, especially the pine regions. There are no lakes, and but few lagoons or native ponds in this region of Georgia. Art, however, has not failed to make up the deficiency in this respect, by improving many of the thousands of mill-seats on the numerous streams that water this favored region, thus forming artificial ponds enough to produce a good crop of autumnal fevers for the anxious sons of Esculapius to reap an annual harvest from. These, however, when decidedly pernicious, have in some instances been abolished by law, to the no small comfort and health of the inhabitants within reach of their deadly borders. Agriculture also has come to the aid of suffering humanity, of late years. Many creeks and marshy lands are being drained for purposes of cultivation, which adds no little to the health and wealth of the country. The improved method of hillside ditching also is helping much to protect the soil from washing into the bottoms, and at once enrich and beautify the country.

The native growth of this country is oak and hickory, interspersed with the short leaf pine, poplar, gum, &c., all indicating a good soil. It is a little singular that when the lands are exhausted and turned out to rest, they invariably spring up with the long leaf pine. It is accounted for on the chemical principle of rotation in crops. The first growth had exhausted all the richer elements in conjunction with the cultivation, and now no forest tree but the pine could find sufficient nourishment in the soil to cause it to spring up and become a tree; partly from the fact, that it does not require so many of the salts, but mainly because it sends its root deep in the earth, and brings them up whence they had filtered away from the surface for ages. But this is a digression.

It is necessary for me to say a word in regard to the population. They are strictly an agricultural people, inhabiting what is properly a rural district, and are made up of two distinct classes, the white and the black. Formerly, when the country was in its pristine strength and glory, they averaged, probably, some twenty inhabitants to the square mile. Now it is reduced to about sixteen, and in some of the older counties it has been even lower than this, but they have, in the last ten years, been showing a gradual increase. The proportion of whites to blacks is considerably in favor of the latter, especially in the lower belt of counties, where cotton is a more lucrative article of produce.

3.—MINERAL WATERS OF ALABAMA.

The mineral springs that flow from the silurian rocks, are both saline and sulphurous. The most important and best known are Blount Springs. These have been so long and so frequently visited by the citizens, that they require no description. They have, moreover, been analyzed by Professor Brumby, and his analysis has been recently republished and widely distributed.

One fact is remarkable in these springs—they are situated in precisely the same geological position as the celebrated springs of Virginia, which are connected with the anticlinal axes. In the same valley, there is another spring near Brooksville, above Blountsville.

The St. Clair Springs also occur in a similar position. A bold limestone

spring rises a few yards from the place, and along the elevated ground on the banks of the stream flowing from this, numerous mineral springs burst forth around the hill upon which the houses stand. The principal, and the only one examined, is situated toward the east, alongside of a bed of magnesian limestone. Besides its being highly sulphurous, I found in the water, on a hasty, and consequently imperfect, examination made on the spot, salts of lime, magnesia and soda in valuable quantity. To make anything like a thorough examination of the springs of Alabama, not already examined, would require more time than was devoted to the entire survey.

This spring is situated in a healthful region; the proprietors are improving the grounds and buildings, and making it otherwise a pleasant place of sojourn for the summer.

The Shelby Springs, like those of Blount, are situated near the black shale. One issues from the limestone, and is calcareous, and the other from the shale, from which it derives its sulphurous and chalybeate properties. This has also been analyzed by Prof. Brumby. The situation is beautiful, and the establishment is arranged with a view to both taste and comfort.

I am not quite certain as to the geological position of the Talladega Springs; but of the qualities of the water, judging from Prof. Brumby's examination, there can be no doubt. There are many other springs in the state of deserved reputation, of which I have not yet collected the materials to give any account. Enough is already known to make it evident that the citizens of Alabama need not leave the state in search of more valuable mineral waters.—*Tuomey's Rep.*

4.—SUMMER RESORTS AT THE SOUTH.

SULLIVAN'S ISLAND, S. C.

Last summer it was our good fortune to visit again the home of our nativity, Charleston, and we were not a little delighted to mark the evidences of its great progress.

From the city we visited Sullivan's Island, which is to become the Rockaway of the South, and which has already a splendid hotel, and when we were there, was crowded with visitors.

Dr. Irving, of Charleston, whose pen gives life to everything that he touches, thus describes the various improvements on the island:

"In sooth, monsters—
That thro' a throat, as black as Erebus,
Disgorge dense smoke, and vomit fiery sparks.
They run
On mystic wheels, which plough the river's breast
To ceaseless furrows of white milky spray."

"But to descend from poetry to plain prose, there is no question that these cheap conveyances from the city to the suburbs, constituting as they do, as regular a vehicular communication, and as much to be relied upon, as if our transit was over a bridge, are the greatest conveniences for many, very many of our citizens, that Charleston has witnessed for some time. Facilities for travel will always cause increase of travel, particularly when combined with cheapness. As the fare now is only ten cents to Sullivan's Island and the other intermediate landing, the temptation to frequent change of air is irresistible with all sorts and conditions of our people. Some idea may be formed of the business doing by this company, when we assert, that thousands upon thousands of passengers are computed to have used the company's boats during the last spring and summer, the number doubling every month, or nearly so—the exact number we do not feel at liberty to give. This insures a handsome revenue and profit independent as it is of the income arising from the daily freight paid by the farmer and planter on his stock, crop, &c., brought to market."

MOUNT PLEASANT.

"As all the boats going from or returning to the city, stop at Mount Pleasant, great improvements have been made at that point for the accommodation of

visitors. A long wharf has been built at the company's expense, at the end of which a fine pier has been so constructed, that no matter what the time of tide, passengers are enabled to land or embark without the slightest inconvenience.

"Mount Pleasant is now becoming a populous and thriving village, by being brought, by the aid of these steam-boats, much *nearer to the city* than it was before—summer retreats are multiplying and lining its borders on the bay, and a large hotel is on the full tide of successful experiment, admirably well kept, as we understand—a great accommodation to transient visitors, or families who may only desire temporary change of air during the summer—good rooms being procurable by the week or day at very reasonable rates.

"The names of the different boats which constitute the line, of which we are now speaking, are 'The Coffee,' 'The Mount Pleasant,' 'The Hibben,' and 'The Massasoit.' New ones will be added of course, as the business still further increases. They leave the city from Market Wharf, at stated intervals, throughout the day, and return with like regularity. The 'Massasoit' and 'Coffee,' being the fastest of the boats, either one or the other, every Wednesday and Saturday, during the year, makes a trip up Cooper river, for the accommodation of the planters in that region round about.

"In addition to the boats already mentioned, the safe and expeditious steamer 'The Gov. Aiken,' makes frequent trips to Fort Johnson and to Morris' Island, and also to that once popular resort of pic-nic parties, Mathews' Ferry, in Christ Church, conveying passengers thither for a few cents; and also, when specially engaged by parties, 'by the particular request of several persons of distinction,' as Sylvester Daggerwood would say, it progresses as far as the village up the Wando, thus enabling the planters in lower St. Thomas's and in Christ Church Parish, to visit their plantations and inspect their crops, with safety and comfort, during the summer.

"In this connection we may mention a still further accommodation that these steamers are now affording from time to time, to another class of our fellow-citizens, whom we little dreamt would avail themselves of an opportunity in this way, pleasantly to beguile an hour. We allude to our city belles and beaux, who having upon occasions made up parties for an afternoon or moonlight ride upon the beach at Sullivan's Island, ship their horses in Charleston, and after reaching the Cove, disembark them; then take a delightful canter for a couple of hours, reaching in that time the extremity of the island, and retracing their steps, get back to the city at the hour they would return from a ride on the Battery or on the Charleston Neck—having escaped the dust and crowd incidental to, and inseparable from, the purlieus of a city, besides having breathed a purer air and benefited by a more invigorating exercise.

"No scene can be more entrancing to persons in a particular mood of mind, than the one viewed by moon-light from the beach of Sullivan's Island. The long and sullen swell of the Atlantic, breaking upon the sands beneath our feet, and 'the yellow beam' dancing merrily upon the luminous waters. On the land side, as we ride on, Fort Moultrie with its gateway, and its narrow postern, and its ramparts, well provided with wall pieces, call up the usual associations of the patriotic past—across the moonlit bay, Fort Sumter throws a dim shadow—still further on Fort Johnson is faintly discernible, and further and fainter still, the outline of the city may be traced in the dusky distance. Seward, the Beacons are seen on Morris' Island, like glow-worms 'to pale their uneffectual fires,' in the sweet moonlight; and the Light-house beyond, peeps occasionally with a transitory glance over the glittering ocean, like some weary sentinel, as it were, dozing at his post, tired with overwatching.

"In addition to many other local improvements on Sullivan's Island, which have recently been made, a very commodious and convenient hotel has just been built, and was opened for the reception of company on the 8th day of July last. The very appropriate title has been given to it of

'THE MOULTRIE HOUSE.'

"The need of such an establishment has long been felt. Surprise has often been expressed, that whilst every other popular summer resort has been provided with adequate accommodations for all who might be desirous of patronizing

them, Sullivan's Island should so long have remained subject to the objections, to which the absence of a large and well conducted hotel always exposes a place, in the judgment of the public. A desideratum so long required, as to this *locale*, has at last been supplied, and in a manner which promises to afford general satisfaction.

The edifice in question is at once elegant in its construction, and admirably suited to the purpose for which it is intended, and is put together, at the same time, so strongly as to render it *storm proof*. Its frame is of yellow pine, supported on brick piers, which rest on a grillage work consisting of heavy logs halved together at all joinings and crossings, and securely pinned together; these logs run under the line of frame of the building, piazza sills, and all partitions, and are bedded on the sand below the line of the water. The building proper is 256 feet long and 40 feet wide, with wings at end 100 feet long, 38 feet wide, with front piazza 16 feet wide, and back piazza 10 feet wide. The central portion of the building projects in front, and continues up through the roof, forming an attic of two stories. Its situation, too, is most judicious, commanding an inspiriting view of the harbor and bay of Charleston, and of the sea—'the open sea'—the surf of which dashes up on a wide beach, not many feet from the hotel, and then breaks into little billows, which, as if instinct with life, keep continually chasing each other, like children in play, far up on the sand. A splendid beach continues round to the very extremity of the island, forming a fine Corso for a ride or drive of many miles, by twilight or moonlight, and affording facilities for bathing (by means of covered vehicles constructed for the purpose) to those who are disposed for a bath at any time in the surf. The climate is delicious and healthful. Here, no pestilential blasts of 'villainous compounds offend;'—no insufferable heat is experienced, that *jades* us in the city through the day and night, thawing and resolving 'our too, too solid flesh into a dew;—here, no discordant noise of the great Babel is heard; but instead, the music of the ocean is in our ears, with its bold harmonies, and the cool breeze, one 'of nature's sweet restorers,' comes wafted to us over the glad waters, from the sea, balmy and pure as a breath of Divinity."

PROSPECTS OF THE HOTEL.

"Again, it is our opinion that the establishment of this hotel will induce many Northern families to come among us and exchange an inhospitable clime for an hospitable one during the winter, certain as they will be to find those comforts which have often been inquired after, but hitherto looked for in vain, on our seaboard. We are confident the Hotel will be as well-patronized *during the winter as the summer months*. The same reason that beguiles Southern families to visit the North in the summer, will induce our Northern friends to return the compliment, and interchange visits regularly with us during the winter. We know no less than five families that arrived in Charleston to spend last winter in our neighborhood, but not being able to procure lodgings exactly to suit them, so that they could have the benefit of sea air, dispersed and sought other situations further South, either in the neighborhood of Savannah, Augustine, or Cuba."

5.—THE NORTH AND THE SOUTH IN REGARD TO SLAVERY.

We extract the following remarks from an address made a short time ago, in Macon county, Georgia, by our esteemed friend, Stephen F. Miller, Esq., a copy of which he has kindly sent us. The readers of the Review will perhaps remember Mr. Miller as having been associated a short time with us in the *editorial* department, where we found him a most laborious, active, untiring and intelligent *confrere*, and have ever lamented that his services could not have been retained for the Review. Our best wishes are with him, however, in whatever field of usefulness he may be employed.

On the 4th of July, 1776, domestic slavery existed in all the American colonies that declared Independence of Great Britain. Of the thirteen original members of the confederacy, seven have abolished it. Nine slaveholding and eight non-slaveholding states have since been added to the Union. The following table shows the slave population in 1776:

1.	Massachusetts	3,500
2.	Rhode Island	4,373
3.	Connecticut	6,000
4.	New-Hampshire	629
5.	New-York	15,000
6.	New-Jersey	7,600
7.	Pennsylvania	10,000
8.	Delaware	9,000
9.	Maryland	80,000
10.	Virginia	165,000
11.	North Carolina	75,000
12.	South Carolina	110,000
13.	Georgia	16,000
	Total number of slaves in 1776	502,132

African slavery would have existed to this day in the Northern States, had it been sufficiently profitable; but as the climate was too cold for cotton, rice and sugar, slave labor was discarded—it did not pay.

If concession be a merit, the South set an early example. She yielded two-fifths of her slaves in 1787, in apportioning Representatives; whilst the North retained every person of color within her limits, as a basis of power in Congress. This fact is an admission of property. What else could have induced the South to assent to this classification, or the North to claim the abatement, in the number of Representatives under the Federal Constitution? The subject produced much feeling between the two sections, and led to the first *compromise* in our political system.

As to the propriety of slave labor, the North has no right to judge. She may cherish manufactures, run ships, cultivate orchards, or do whatever else she pleases within her own sphere, and the South says not a word; but when she turns champion of a false and misguided humanity, and takes upon herself the guardianship of the South, well may we resist the usurpation. For the last fifteen years we have protested in vain. From a few crazy memorials to Congress, abolition has swelled to its present hideous bulk.

With Louisiana, we acquired from France in 1803, that immense region extending from the Mississippi to the Rio Grande, then a slave country. When Missouri applied for admission into the Union, in 1820, the North objected, because she recognized slavery in her constitution. This drew the line of 36 degrees 30 minutes, to quiet the troubled waters, and was the first exercise by Congress of the power to legislate on slavery under the Constitution. After the Treaty of 1819 with Spain, our Western limits were greatly contracted. Beginning where Virginia and North Carolina connect on the Atlantic coast, and thence westward to the 100th degree of longitude, the Missouri parallel, crossing 25 degrees, formed the barrier to slavery in all states north of it and west of the Mississippi river. Since then we have added 22 deg. to the Pacific—making about 3,500 miles from ocean to ocean. For comparison I submit a statement, showing the relative strength of the North and South, in extent and population:

FREE STATES.		Sq. miles.	Population.	SLAVE STATES.		Sq. miles.	Population.
1.	Michigan	56,243	212,267	1.	Texas	325,520	.....
2.	Illinois	55,405	476,183	2.	Missouri	67,380	383,702
3.	Wisconsin	53,924	30,945	3.	Virginia	61,352	1,239,797
4.	Iowa	50,914	43,112	4.	Florida	59,268	54,477
5.	Pennsylvania	47,000	1,724,033	5.	Georgia	58,000	691,392
6.	New-York	46,000	2,128,921	6.	Arkansas	52,198	97,574
7.	Ohio	39,964	1,519,467	7.	Alabama	50,722	590,756
8.	Maine	35,000	501,793	8.	Mississippi	47,147	375,651
9.	Indiana	33,809	685,866	9.	Louisiana	46,431	373,306
10.	New-Hampshire	8,030	284,574	10.	North Carolina	45,509	753,419
11.	Vermont	8,000	291,948	11.	Tennessee	44,000	829,210
12.	Massachusetts	7,250	737,699	12.	Kentucky	37,680	779,828
13.	New-Jersey	6,851	375,651	13.	South Carolina	28,000	594,398
14.	Connecticut	4,750	352,411	14.	Maryland	11,000	470,019
15.	Rhode Island	1,200	108,830	15.	Delaware	2,120	78,085
	Total	454,340	9,783,710		Total	936,318	7,311,614

These tables include all persons whatever, white and black. Of the number in the South, 2,486,226 are slaves, according to the census of 1840. An enumeration is now in progress, which, we presume, will show an increase of about 30 per cent. in the entire population.

Whilst conferring together on the blessings of the Union, let us briefly glance at our resources—that our adversary may take warning, as well from what he will lose, as from what we shall continue to possess, in the event of dissolution.

The cotton crop of the United States for the last ten years has averaged 2,100,000 bales. To raise this quantity, let 500 pounds in seed to the acre, five bales to the hand, 450 pounds to the bale, and 7 cents per lb. be assumed in the estimate. We then have:

7,560,000 acres in cultivation, worth $10	$75,600,000
420,000 slaves in cotton fields, worth $600	252,000,000
Capital invested in cotton	$327,000,000

With the land and force here stated, the South is able to export annually 2,100,000 bales, worth $66,500,000—an interest of nearly 20 per cent. Out of this, however, expenses of every kind have to be paid, reducing the actual gain probably to 8 per cent. This, we think, is about the medium of the cotton growing states. Perhaps it may slide as low as five per cent. Of course there are exceptions; some planters realizing more, and others less, according to their skill and opportunity. Besides the choice hands assigned to cotton, the remaining 2,000,000 of slaves in the South may be averaged at $400, making a total of $800,000,000 of that kind of property employed otherwise. The cotton mills, railroads, merchandise and shipping of the North may be more productive, but are not equal in magnitude of value, or more essential to her well being. In addition to cotton, two other important articles produced exclusively by slave labor, ought to be mentioned—sugar and rice. These crops are of the annual value, probably, of $20,000,000; to say nothing of tobacco, worth $15,000,000 more, raised in slave states. Thus we have upwards of $100,000,000 annually produced by slave labor, for market, exclusive of provisions. For nearly all this stupendous yield, and its multiplied exchanges, the North is the carrier and commission merchant, levying enormous profits on the South. In case the Union is dissolved, Charleston, Savannah, Mobile and New-Orleans will be the importing marts for the South, instead of New-York and Boston. Manufactories are already established, and still rapidly advancing, in the South. Our neighboring city of Columbus is the future Lowell. As a mere question of profit and loss, which party will suffer most by disunion?

6.—STATISTICS OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

In the following table is exhibited, first, the total population of South Carolina, at each census taken by the United States; second, the slave population; thirdly, the number of Representatives in Congress for each decennial period; fourthly, the number of free colored persons, all according to the United States census returns. The two last columns exhibit the population, according to the state census, which is always one year in advance of the federal reckoning:

STATE CENSUS.

Years.	Total.	Slaves.	Rep's.	Free col'd.	Whites.	Slaves.
1790	249,073	107,094	6	1,801	.....	.....
1800	345,591	146,151	8	3,185	.....	.....
1810	415,115	196,365	9	4,554	217,842	196,365
1820	502,741	258,475	9	6,826	231,828	235,219
1830	581,185	315,401	9	7,921	250,943	285,439
1840	594,398	327,038	7	8,276	257,117	298,115
1850	.....	.....	.....	.....	280,385	358,714

Slaves are not enumerated in our state census, but the numbers above set down are taken from the report of the Comptroller-General, founded on the tax returns of the state. In the United States census, slaves are enumerated for the purpose of representation.

AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT.

1.—THE OLIVE TREE.

SEVERAL years ago we published a valuable paper from Mitchell King, of Charleston, on the production of Olives at the South. We beg to append to it the following:

We took occasion, some two years ago, to suggest to our horticulturists that the olive tree would thrive well in this region. Subsequent observation has served to strengthen the opinion, that the culture would prove easy and profitable. Indeed, there is scarcely any force, we think, in the common objection urged, that our climate is too variable, and exhibiting at times too great an extreme of cold. The chief objection, we apprehend, is the long period that must elapse before a tree would come into bearing. Some people cannot bear the idea of waiting ten or a dozen years for returns for their labor, and the notion of planting that others may reap never enters their heads. Now and then, however, we find an exception to this selfish rule, and we trust we shall be pardoned for referring to a case within our own knowledge. Our friend, John Stuardi, now well stricken in years, paid a visit last summer to his native Italy. While there, he arranged for the shipment at a proper season of a great many fruit trees, shrubs, flower seeds, &c., and among them several good sized olive trees. They came out in due time, in good order, and were immediately planted out in his garden. They are now growing finely, and he expects that within three years at farthest to see them in bearing. His success, of which he is confident, may induce others to follow his example. Our children, may, therefore, see flourishing olive groves in and about Mobile.

The following history of the olive, taken fram Phillips' "Companion for the Orchard," will interest the reader.

The olive tree is said to have been transported from Egypt into Attica by the care of Cecrops, about one thousand five hundred and fifty-six years before the Christian era. In the fabulous histories of Greece, we are informed that the gods having been called on to settle a dispute between Neptune and Minerva, arising from the desire of each of them to give name to the new city Cecrops; they determined to give the preference to the one who should produce the most beneficial gift to mankind. Neptune, striking the ground with his trident, created a horse; but Minerva, by causing an olive tree to spring from the earth, gained her point; and from her the city was called Athenæ, now Athens; since the olive, the emblem of peace or agriculture, was much preferable to the horse, the symbol of war and bloodshed. Minerva and the Graces are also represented as crowned with olive branches.

A contribution of olives was given by all the Grecians who attended the Panathenæa, a festival held at Athens in honor of Minerva. Those who excelled in any of the games during this festival, were crowned with a wreath of olives, which grew in the grove at Academus, a place near the city, with spacious and shady walks, belonging to a man of that name. Plato having here opened a school of philosophy, all places of learning have been since called Academies.

As to the soil of the olive tree, we may conclude, from several passages in scripture, that it grew naturally in Syria; but particularly near Jerusalem, if we may judge by the Mount of Olives, so often mentioned in the New Testament. It was first planted in Italy, in the thirteenth year of the reign of Servius Tullius, the sixth king of Rome.

The olive seems to have been highly appreciated by the Romans; as Pliny says, except the vine, there is not a tree bearing fruit of so great account as the olive. "Fenestella informs us," says this author, "that during the reign of Tarquinius Priscus, which was about the 183d year from the foundation of Rome, there were no olive trees either in Italy, Spain, or Africa, which is a strong presumption that they grew originally only in Syria." Theophrastus states, that in the 440th year of the city, there were no olive trees in Italy, but on the coast, and within forty miles of the sea; but Pliny says, in his time they were to be found of the very heart of Spain and France, but that the olives of Syria, although smaller,

produced the best oil. Virgil mentions but three kinds of olives; Columella mentions ten varieties, but says he believes they were much more numerous. The olive tree is cultivated with great assiduity by the peasants on the banks of the river Kizilasan in Persia.

The olive tree was first introduced into England in the year 1570; but there is little inducement for us to cultivate it, since it is by no means handsome, and we have no desire for its ripe fruit. Besides, the climate in general is not sufficiently warm to assure us of a crop, though we have no doubt but it would flourish in many situations on the south side of the Sussex Downs, where the fig tree thrives; indeed, in some parts of Devonshire it is found as a standard tree, and is seldom injured by the frost.

Several olive trees were planted against a warm wall at Camden House, Kensington, which succeeded very well till their tops advanced above the wall; after which they were generally cut down to the top of the wall in winter. These, in 1719, produced a good quantity of fruit, which grew so large as to be fit for pickling.

According to Columella, this tree flourishes best in dry hills that are full of white clay; for in moist and fat fields it produces plenty of leaves, but no fruit. Though this author contradicts the opinion, that the olive will not grow sixty miles from the sea, he states, that where an oak has stood it cannot be raised.

The olive tree requires but little care in the cultivation, but it seldom produces fruit oftener than once in two years. Signor Battiloro describes a singular variety of olive tree, which deviates so much from the general habit of the tree, that it produces four or five crops of fruit in the year, according to the temperature of the season, the olives being small and black, but affording delicious oil. The same intelligent observer has related the following anecdote:

"Francesco Longuana, a person known in Italy by his proficiency in literature, happening one day to converse with me concerning the olive tree, mentioned, that he had read in the writings of an ancient Greek author, whose name had escaped his recollection, that in the city of Coriolanum, near that of Venasso, there was an olive tree which put forth blossoms every month, and that this Greek noticed the circumstance as a prodigy. That city, at present a village, called Ciurnalo, being at a little distance from my castle, I repaired to it for the purpose of tracing, if possible, the remains of such a tree; and fortunately, owing to the kind attention of the priest, I actually encountered five of them; and on returning to the same spot in September, I found on them four different kinds of olives, and the recent blossoms of a fifth crop. The inhabitants call them *Olive d' ogni mese.*"

This fruit the modern Greeks, during Lent, eat in its ripe state, without any preparation but a little pepper or salt and oil.

The sweet olives in the south of Italy are of a large size, and eaten annually in October, when pulled from the trees; or if neglected by the inhabitants they are greedily devoured by birds.

We receive the olive from the south of France, from Spain and Portugal, pickled in the following manner: it is gathered unripe, and suffered to steep in water some days, and afterwards put into a ley of water and barilla, or kali, with the ashes of olive stones calcined, or with lime. It is then bottled or barrelled with salt and water, and in this state do we meet with it at the desserts of our most wealthy tables, where fashion has done much in having introduced and given a fondness for olives, which seems to be an acquired taste; however, they are grateful to the stomach, and are considered good to promote digestion and appetite.

But olives are chiefly cultivated for the sake of the oil they produce, which is not only a profitable article of commerce, but forms a principal one of food to the inhabitants of the places where these trees are found. This oil is contained in the pulp only, whereas other fruits have it in the nut or kernel. It is obtained by simple pressure, in the following manner: the olives are first bruised by a mill-stone, and afterwards put into the trough of a press, which, by means of turning a strong screw, forces all the liquor out, which is called *virgin oil.* A coarser kind is obtained afterwards, by adding hot water to the bruised fruit.

Oil is the main support of commerce in some provinces of Italy. It forms

the great trade of Gallipolitans. It appears by the books of their custom-house, that in 1766, eleven thousand four hundred and fifty-nine salme were shipped off for national markets, and thirty-four thousand four hundred and ninety-three salme for foreign ones. This quantity cannot be valued at less than a million of ducats. The exportation of oil brings into Calabria-ultra half a million of ducats annually.

The olive tree is attended to with the nicest care near Naples, and no trouble spared to increase its fruitfulness, or revive prolific vigor in plants that begin to feel the decay of age; at one time they manure or water the roots; in winter the peasants bare the roots of the old trees, laying upon them a thin coat of litter, and leave them thus, during four months, to imbibe the restorative salts of the atmosphere. Few of them have any principal bole; for all predominant shoots are early cut out, that every part may derive equal benefit from the influence of the sun. The fruit in some places is suffered to hang till it falls through ripeness.

Aristæus, son of Apollo by Cyrene, was regarded as a rural deity for having taught mankind to extract olive oil, and also make honey, cheese, and butter. The wrestlers were anointed with it; and it was made a substitute for butter, which among the Romans was used as a medicine.

We find in the book of Leviticus, that oil formed a principal part of the meat offerings which the Israelites presented to the Lord.

Pliny informs us, that in the 500th year of the city, when Appius Claudius and Lucius Junius were consuls together, a pound of oil was sold for twelve asses; but that in the year 680, ten pounds of oil sold for an ass, and that, in twenty-two years after that time, Italy was able to furnish the provinces with oil; and it was much used at their baths, having, as they supposed, the property of warming the body, and defending it against the cold.

The best olive oil at present is obtained from Provence.

Although the greater number of the English eat but very little olive oil, yet oil in some shape forms a considerable part of our food, both animal and vegetable, and affords much nourishment; but with some, oily substances do not unite with the contents of the stomach, especially where acids abound.

Dr. A. Hunter was decidedly of opinion that all plants receive their principal nourishment from oily particles incorporated with water by means of an alkaline salt, or absorbent earth. Until oil is made miscible, it is unable to enter the radical vessels of vegetables; and on that account Providence has bountifully supplied all natural soils with chalky or other absorbent particles.

Olive oil is esteemed good for the breast and lungs; it tempers the sharp choleric humors in the bowels, is useful against all corrosive mineral poisons, as arsenic, &c.; it opens the urinary passages; and is good for the stone and gravel. Olive oil congeals at 38° of Fahrenheit.

The wood of the olive tree is used by cabinet-makers, from its being beautifully veined and admitting an excellent polish.

These trees may be obtained from those Italian houses which import orange trees; they require nearly the same treatment; but when they have taken good root they may be taken from the pots and planted in a warm situation.

2.—MUSQUITE GRASS.

Messrs. Editors,—I send you a small bundle of Texas or Musquite grass, grown on the farm of our neighbor, Mr. Henry C. Daniel. In an article published last year in the *Southern Cultivator*—this agricultural paper should be in the hands of every Mississippi planter—over the signature of J. W. Barnes, he says, there are several varieties of Musquite grass, as follows: Curly, running, feather, blue, block, and bearded, but the difference between them is so small that it is not worth mentioning. We find, says the writer, this grass growing in Texas spontaneously, as far south as latitude 28°, and as far north and west as the Grand Prairie above the cross-timbers, thus spreading over a country of more than 8°. but it seems to flourish best in the latitude from 28° to 32°; but

from the hardiness of its nature, I am led to believe that it will grow in almost any latitude of extreme cold. Unlike the Bermuda, this grass is easily killed by turning it over in winter with a common Cary plow. Some farmers in western and northern Texas succeed well in making a crop with no other food but Musquite grass. This grass you will perceive, Messrs. Editors, is as well seeded as the Timothy, and therefore must be highly nutritious—the fibre of the stalk is delicate and fine. I am confident, that upon a soil adapted to its production, two or more tons to the acre may be grown. If, then, we have a rich nutritious grass that can be successfully and profitably raised in Mississippi, will not our planters appropriate a few of their acres to its culture? Our citizens annually make large outlays for northern hay, but wherefore should we do this when we can raise it at home? I hope your old correspondents, Caleb Quotem and Dr. Phillips, will favor us with their views on the adaptation of our climate and soil to the production of Musquite grass. Your obedient servant,

YEOMAN OF HINDS.

3.—SUGAR-REFINING.

One of our New-York contemporaries speaks of a newly-invented process for refining, or cleaning sugar, which is about to be employed in one of the refining establishments of that city. The sugar, mixed with molasses until it has a semi-fluid consistency, is thrown into a revolving sieve, with meshes so close as to confine the grains of sugar, while it permits the molasses to escape; and the sieve being revolved with prodigious velocity—two thousand revolutions a minute—the molasses is driven out by the centrifugal force, leaving the sugar behind, clear, white, and it is said, perfectly dry, resembling what is called refined brown sugar, and needing but one more operation to convert it into the loaf. The sieve refined two hundred pounds at a time, and in the short space, we are told, of two minutes.

4.—SOMETHING FOR THE SOUTH.

Lieut. Porter, of the navy, has presented to the editors of the *National Intelligencer*, for distribution, a variety of seeds of plants from the Mediterranean. Among them is the pistechio nut, which is used for the manufacture of a valuable dye and oil, and for several other purposes of commerce. In a note Lieut. Porter says: "I think the climate of Georgia, Louisiana, South and North Carolina, Texas, Mississippi, and several other of the Southern States, is well adapted for the propagation of this tree. Should any one be successful in raising and bringing the tree to perfection in any considerable numbers, they will find the sale of the nut a lucrative business. The lasting melon of Naples can be kept good one year merely by hanging it up in a cool and dry place. The Oriental cypress is the ornamental tree of all Eastern cemeteries, and begins to assume that place in European cemeteries."

5.—THE NEXT PATENT REPORT.

Although Mr. Ewbank has not yet favored the world with the first volume of his agricultural statistics, owing to the wretched system of government printing, we believe, he has yet issued a circular for a new one. We publish cheerfully from the circular he sends us, those queries which relate peculiarly to Louisiana and the South-West.

COTTON.

Average yield of clean cotton per acre—cost of production per lb.—what crops best grown in rotation with cotton—best preventives against rust, army and boll worms—how deep do you usually plow for this crop; have you any experience in sub-soiling, or deep tillage for cotton—your experience in the use of cottop-seed as a fertilizer—how can cotton lands best be improved without resting them?

SUGAR-CANE.

Is the cane losing its vital force, and becoming more subject to premature decay than formerly—should not the seeds in place of rattoons be occasionally

planted to produce new and healthier varieties—can you suggest any improvement in cultivation of the cane, or the manufacture of sugar—cost of producing sugar per lb.?

RICE.

Can rice be successfully cultivated on upland—do you know of any varieties decidedly superior to others which deserve increased attention—can you suggest any improvement in the management of rice plantations?

TOBACCO.

Average yield per acre—cost of production per cwt. or hhd.—describe any new process of cultivation or curing—crops best grown in rotation to maintain the fertility of tobacco-land?

HEMP.

Is the culture of hemp on the increase or decrease—describe any new process of culture or preparation for market—average yield per acre—cost of production per pound?

DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES.

1.—SOUTHERN GRANITE, No. 4.*

According to estimates made by scientific architects here, who are familiar with the general plans of construction proposed for the new Custom House, the quantity of granite necessary for its erection will be certainly not less than 15,000 tons. If many columns are introduced, and stone used to a more considerable extent than is now anticipated, it may require 18,000 tons, or even more.

It has already been determined that the building will be 300 feet in length, and 200 feet in width—thus giving a belt of 1,000 feet. The basement, and the two stories above it, with the cornices and parapet, will be, probably, at least 60 feet in height. We have then an outside superfices above ground of 60,000 square feet. But the foundations and cross walls, which must be of considerable thickness, the steps, and paving, will consume a vast quantity of stone—sufficient to warrant us in assuming 15,000 tons as a basis of calculation. A square foot of granite is usually estimated at 155 pounds in the calculation of builders; though the various species of granite vary somewhat in specific gravity. This then is equivalent to 216,774 cubic feet. We will assume the price of the granite at 45 cents per foot—the freight at $2½ per ton—and the cost of hammering it at 45 cents per superficial foot. The measurement of the hammered superfices is estimated by competent persons here, at not less than 150,000 square feet.

With these data, and without entering into any computation of the amount of workmanship, and the value of the ornamental parts of the building—such as the columns with their caps and bases, the pediments, and other embellishments, we arrived at the following statement:

15,000 tons, equivalent to 216,774 square feet, at 45 cents	$97,548 30
15,000 tons freight, at $2½	37,500 00
150,000 superficial feet, hammering at 45 cents	67,500 00
	$202,548 30

This gives an aggregate cost, which does not vary materially from our original estimate. We will now direct attention to two of our items of calculation, viz.: the price of the granite, and the cost of hammering it. Forty-five cents per foot for granite delivered on shipboard is a low price, even for large contracts. The

* Concluded from October Number.

latest offer for furnishing granite on a large scale that has come under our observation, is that for the Smithsonian Institute building at Washington. The granite in this case was to be obtained in Maryland, on the line of the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road. The granites with which we are likely to come into competition, will be those of Massachusetts or Maine, as from those points it can be conveyed by sea to Charleston at less expense than from any other quarries, unless it be from those in South Carolina. The granites from Maine, however, are not in much esteem—being generally of whitish appearance, and objectionable on other accounts. The Quincy granite is much admired on account of its color, and the superior capacity which it is said to possess of resistance to the action of fire; but on this account, as well as the extra cost of working it, it usually commands about 10 per cent. more than the other sorts of New-England granite. This very circumstance, which renders it necessary for the quarriers of it to charge that difference in order to realize to themselves the same net profit, makes it also more expensive to work, as, in consequence of its tenacity, it cannot be wrought at the same cost as some other granites which are equally desirable for building purposes. We have instituted comparisons with particular reference to the Quincy quarries, because they are amongst the most eligible in situation for the shipment of stone to the Southern states.

When large contracts are made for hammering granite, it is seldom the case that the price falls below the cost of the granite delivered on the spot where it is to be used. Forty-five cents per superficial foot is the lowest rate that we have heard of. Those who may contemplate engaging in this enterprize in Columbia, need not be over careful to investigate the cost of hammering the granite, as, from whatever source the granite for the Custom House may be obtained, it is certain that it will be hammered on the spot which the building will occupy; but we make these observations respecting this item, and fix the probable rate of charge, in order to verify the estimate we have made of the entire cost of granite for the building. If it is prepared for use abroad, it will not only require to be cased with strips of wood, secured by hoops of iron, in order to protect the edges from injury, but, in consequence of the necessity of more careful handling on shipboard, as well as receiving and discharging it, it will superinduce the payment of extra freight—which extra charges would also pertain to the conveyance of it by rail-road.

It is quite possible that the columns and cornices and other ornamental parts of the building, which will be of such high cost as to render the difference of freight, and the extra cost of casing, but small in proportion to their value, may may be wrought at the quarries, and in such case, indeed, it is highly important to ascertain whether we can hammer and work up stone as cheaply as at the North. For the reasons already assigned, we see no obstacle to our doing it even cheaper. Labor can be had at as low rates or lower—subsistence is cheaper—the climate and temperature are such as to admit of uninterrupted operations at all seasons—and the granites we have may be worked with much less labor, it being recollected that some of those described by Professor Tuomey yield very readily to the chisel, whilst they at the same time possess the beauty and durability desirable for building materials. It must be borne in mind that Northern shipments of granites to the South are burthened with wharfage at both ends of the sea route, and marine insurance, which will certainly amount to more than the cost of hauling from the rail-road depot in Charleston to any point within the city.

We have now presented to the consideration of the reader almost every item to be taken into account in demonstrating our ability to furnish stone of good quality, at the lowest price, for the new Custom-house; and we hope we have succeeded in placing the matter in a sufficiently favorable aspect to induce the commencement of the business. The site already purchased for the building, (Fitzsimon's Wharves,) is now under lease for nearly three years from the present time. It is a valuable lease, and as it is altogether unlikely that the Government will purchase it, we may presume that no Granite will be wanted on the spot, for use, for nearly three years to come; but let not this fact cause any one to slumber who wishes to secure the contract. The Commissioners are now advertising for offers—the plans for the buildings will be definitively de-

termined upon in February next, and although the offers for stone are now called for probably not so much with a view of closing a contract for it as to fix upon the kind of stone to be used; yet such preliminaries may soon be entered into as will ultimately give diretion to the contract for the stone. So let your Columbia quarriers be on the look out—they may depend upon fair play so far as the Commissioners are concerned. Boston has been allowed to build her Custom-House of Granite—and New-York of Marble, both of them at enormous cost; but no doubt when Charleston is considered, economy will be the order of the day, and efforts will be made in some quarters to find for us a cheaper stone. But let us stand up for Carolina Granite. If suitable efforts are made by our Representatives in Congress—using their influence with the Secretary of the Treasury, by the Commissioners, and by our own citizens, it will be accorded to us; and if we succeed, it will form an era in our industrial history. As it may not be uninteresting to state the cost of some of the principal public buildings in this country, we make some quotations, touching this point, from the valuable work put forth by the Hon. Robert Dale Owen, Chairman of the Building Committee of the Smithsonian Institute, and to which we beg to refer enquirers for much of valuable information on the topics which we have brought to their notice. Of the public buildings in Washington and elsewhere, he reckons the cost as follows: "The Capitol (which is built of Sandstone from Acquia Creek, Virginia,) including the cost of re-building after its partial destruction in 1814, and the laying out of its grounds, $2,659,573—the Treasury building, of the same material, $648,743—the Patent Office, of the same, $417,550—the General Post Office, of Marble from New-York, $452,765—the New-York Custom-House, of Marble, $960,000—the Boston Custom-House, of Granite, $776,000, not including the price of the lot, nor the very heavy cost incurred in preparing for the stone foundations—these two items amounting to $300,000, and making the total cost $1,076,000. The two porticoes and dome of this building, cost, according to the statement of the architect, $240,000. The United States Bank building (now the Custom-House,) in Philadelphia, of Marble, cost $257,452—the Girard College, of Marble, $1,427,800; Trinity Church in New-York, of new red Sandstone, about $338,000, of which about one-third was expended on its tower and spire. The Smithsonian buildings, of the same, will be about $215,000."

And now what is wanting to set this Granite ball in motion in Richland? Is it capital? It can be easily obtained—we are ready to embark in it here. A company can easily be formed, if private individuals are unwilling to go into it alone. The approaching Session of the Legislature will bring to your town many who will join you, if it is desired, and you will bring the matter to their notice. Let then the effort be made, and if other sufficient motives cannot be found for entering into this promising enterprise, on a large scale, with the determination to make a trial of what can be done in this way, let those monuments of our shame—the Capitol Gate Posts—transported by sea and land, from *Northern Quarries*, to your inland town, whose foundation is Granite, arouse within us a determined spirit of enterprize. It is high time that we should disencumber ourselves of that vile lethargy which causes us to be so miserably dependant upon foreign skill and enterprize.

To one other subject we desire to invite attention—the recognized mode of measuring granite. It will be seen, on reference to Shaw's work, that at a convention of stone quarriers held in Boston some years ago, certain rules of measurement were adopted, and which, we believe, are still adhered to. These measurements relate to hammered and chiseled granite. They should be familiar to those engaging in the business. And now as to the quarrying of granite. "Any attempt to recount the history of the art, (says Burgoyne) "would oblige us to extend our retrospect to a very early date, perhaps we should say to a dateless period—to call to mind the structural wonders of Tyre, Sidon, and of Thebes; and to close history with the confession that, however the mechanical modes of wielding the wrought masses may have received improvement in modern times, the primitive methods and tools of the quarrymen and of the mason have, if we except the introduction of gunpowder, become no more altered in our hands than have the chiselled works of the ancient sculp-

tors been surpassed by the productions of later years. The implements employed for quarrying by mere manual labor are simply the sledge hammer or mallet, the borer or chisel, and the wedges, besides trucks, such gearing as may be required to facilitate the removal of the blocks when detached. Of these, the only one which needs any description is the chisel, which is an iron rod with a steel cutting end, welded at one extremity and flattened to a wedge-like form on the other. The implements used in blasting are of a similarly simple character, and consist of the borer or jumping tool, the scraper for clearing the hole of the chips produced, the claying bar for driving in dry clay if the hole be too damp for the immediate introduction of the charge, the needle, which is driven into the charge, and remains while the hole is filled up with stones, &c., so that, when ultimately withdrawn, a channel is preserved communicating directly with the powder. While the needle, which is a long, thin copper rod, remains in its place, the space around it is filled up, by means of the tramping-bar, with stones, &c." It is a singular fact that some of the most recently introduced improvements in quarrying and boring, which were brought from the mines of Germany as novelties, were in use, as has been lately ascertained, centuries ago in China.

Finally, let us see what will be *done*—not talked about—in this matter of furnishing granite for the new Custom House.

Let the business of quarrying be but begun, on a large scale, and with good management, it must succeed and prove very profitable. There will be no lacking of demand for the stone. We must before long have at least a new State House in Columbia, for the miserable old barn which now annually encloses the assembled wisdom of the State, is utterly unworthy for the purpose. Hopefully will we wait further developments.

2.—SOUTHERN MANUFACTURES.

The following article from the *Louisville Journal* will lead to very interesting reflections in the minds of the thoughtful:

THE PROGRESS OF THE COTTON MANUFACTURE SOUTH AND WEST.

It is now but a few years since public attention was called to the vast natural advantages at various points in the valley of the Mississippi, for the manufacture of the great staple of that valley. The essays and discussions on the subject that have appeared in this and other journals, have satisfied every reading and thinking man in the country that the chief seats of cotton manufacture are to be on and near the cotton and wheat fields. Already we see indications of the results of these opinions in the condition of the Eastern mills. In a few years more English capitalists and operatives will have ascertained our superior advantages, and the mills of Glasgow and Manchester will be gradually stopped, preparatory to a removal of money, men and machinery, to points within our limits, where more can be effected by the force of each.

We ask the attentive consideration of the reader to the following extract from an able editorial in the last *Dry Goods Reporter:*

"At the present moment, among the producers of cloth in those sections—namely, the Northern and Middle States—which have hitherto been regarded as the chief seats of manufacturing industry, there appears to be, and doubtless is, something less of that prosperity which, upon an average, throughout the whole country, is unusually marked; the value of raw materials has risen disproportionately to the price of fabrics, and, although the demand for the latter is good, the supply is more than equal to it. That is to say, notwithstanding the raw material is very high, and manufacturers complain of inadequate prices, they nevertheless buy and work up a larger quantity of raw material than ever before, in the face of enhanced exportations of rival productions. This is an anomaly which puzzles many; but, if we reflect upon the causes which are in operation to stimulate competition, we arrive at something like a solution.

"We may reflect that political causes in Europe have operated to keep goods cheap in Lancastershire, and by doing so, to promote large exports to this side of the Atlantic at a moment when more incentives to manufacturing rivalry have acted upon the South and West. These are, first, abundance of capital; second, the influence of the improvements in steam-power and machinery, emancipating factory-labor from water-power localities; and lastly, political motives.

"The South has abundance of capital, evinced in the fact that the crop thus far delivered, say 2,000,000 bales, has realized $104,000,000, against $80,000,000 for 2,820,000 bales last year; that is to say, a quantity diminished by one-fourth, lessening to the same extent the expenses of freight, packing, weighing, &c., while rates of exchange are high, drawn against high values, has enabled the South, as a whole, probably to realize $30,000,000 more money from this crop than from the last. With these means, factories have so multiplied, that not short of 175,000 spindles are now in operation in the cotton States, requiring 100,000 bales of cotton per annum, and every mail brings advices of some new one going up. This rivalry affects the old-established factories far more; as new factories are all armed with the newest improved machinery, and will produce at probably 20 per cent. better advantage. The competition from this quarter is every way calculated to diminish the old margin between the cost of raw material and that of fabrics. Therefore, those old consumers who had reached the minimum margin at which they could work, must give up shop, and give place to more competent operators."

The editor of that paper has been a merchant, and cotton manufacturer. There is no better authority on this subject.

Here we see an excess of $30,000,000 as the product of the cotton crop of 1849–'50 over that of 1848–'49. This thirty millions of dollars would put up at home, and equip enough mills to change from five to six hundred thousand bales of cotton into coarse cotton cloth. Most of the money would be spent at home for labor and materials, and would consequently be re-producing cotton mills. The South can spare this thirty millions of dollars every year, and instead of feeling a loss and deficiency of capital, would feel the stimulating influences of a seductive home-employed capital. In ten years, the savings in carrying cotton cloth, and food for the cotton cloth-makers in unnatural directions about the world, would build and equip cotton mills enough to consume our entire crop, and we should then have a monopoly of cotton cloth as well as of raw cotton.

The people of the South would then be busy at home instead of running off to California. The stream of Pactolus would then run by their very doors, and they would find its golden sands richer than those under the Sacramento.

The reader will not fail to note what is stated in the extract above about the greater efficiency of new cotton machinery. Twenty per cent. advantage is enormous.

The Eastern mills have now the advantage of our own only in system. This we can, and shall soon obtain, and then we shall hear no home croakings and excuses about the profitableness or advantages of home cotton mills.

DEPARTMENT OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENT.

I.—TEHUANTEPEC RAIL-ROAD.

MOVEMENT IN NEW-ORLEANS.

At a meeting of the Committee, Mr. Benjamin stated that at the last meeting of the Committee, a sub-Committee was appointed to prepare an address to the people of the United States, soliciting aid in the Tehuantepec enterprise, of which Committee he (Mr. Benjamin) was appointed Chairman. The Committee had not yet been able to prepare the address, but he had drawn up a report, containing a considerable amount of information to the citizens of New-Orleans, which had not yet been laid before them.

Mr. Benjamin then read his report, which is very voluminous, and highly in-

teresting. It is very ably drawn up, and contains a large number of important facts, with which we were previously unacquainted. It fully explains the nature and advantages of the original grant, for the right of way across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, and the transfer of all these rights and privileges to the trustees of the permanent Committee in New-Orleans, with power to make a transfer of them to a company as soon as one is formed. The articles of agreement with Mr. Hargous are all given.

The report was adopted, and Mr. Benjamin stated that all difficulties and doubts in regard to the enterprise were removed, and that it only remained for the citizens of New-Orleans to act. The disposal of the lands along the route, continued Mr. B., will in time more than pay for the road, and the work will commence paying as soon as the company organizes. The company can immediately start a communication across, by means of mules and carriages, and a considerable portion of the California travel can be secured at once. The towns which will spring up at each end of the road will be the property of the company, and the sale of lots will produce a large sum of money.

Mr. Benjamin stated that it was necessary to raise some twenty or thirty thousand dollars for present uses in making surveys, &c.

It was moved that the committee open an office for the purpose of receiving subscriptions to the stock of the company, which was now sure to be organized. Subscribers are to pay in five per cent. on the amount subscribed, the same to be credited to them when the books of the company are opened. The motion prevailed.

Mr. Mathews offered a resolution, appointing a committee of twenty citizens to wait on the Governor, and solicit him to call an extra session of the Legislature immediately, with a view of having the general corporation laws altered, and a charter given to the company. The resolution was adopted.

It was moved that a committee of ten citizens be appointed to draft a memorial and obtain the signatures of all our citizens, praying for an extra session of the Legislature. The memorial is to be carried up by the committee of twenty, and presented to the Governor. The motion was adopted.

The privileges obtained from the grantees of the Mexican Government consist:

1. Of the exclusive right of establishing a communication by steam across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec by the canals and rail-roads, or improvement of natural water courses. The right is granted for sixty years.

2. Of a grant in fee-simple of ten leagues of land on each side of the line of communication, making about five millions of acres.

3. Of exemption from any contributions or taxes on travelers or merchandise in transitu, for a term of fifty years; and exemption from transport duty, freights, lighterage, tonnage, or any other class of dues.

4. Of the right to foreigners to acquire real property and exercise any trade or calling, even mining, within fifty leagues on either side of the line of transit.

5. Of an exemption from all duty on agricultural implements, and implements for the arts, for twenty years; and on all articles of subsistence, clothing, furniture, and other things useful for the construction and embellishment of houses, for six years from the establishment of the colony.

6. Of making all works necessary for shelter and use, fortresses and warehouses, in two ports, one at each end of the line, to be selected by the grantee.

The grant of the above privileges was originally made to Jose Garay, by whom it was subsequently conveyed to Mr. Hargous of this city. This committee have obtained a conditional release from Mr. Hargous, of which the following is an outline:—

1. Mr. Hargous secures to the citizens of New-Orleans a preference in carrying out the enterprise, and give them two years within which to organise a company for that purpose.

2. To prevent the possibility of any different disposal of the grant in the interval, Mr. Hargous makes conveyance of it to the trustees who are authorized to convey it to the contemplated company, if formed within the limit of the last two years. At the end of that time the trustees were to convey it back to Mr. Hargous, if there should be a failure of organization.

3. Mr. Hargous chooses for trustees persons who are citizens of New-Orleans, and who should be approved by the committee.

4. Mr. Hargous is to receive for his privileges, lands, &c., one-third of the stock of the contemplated company, not, however, to exceed three millions of dollars. For this purpose it is assumed that it would cost about $6,000,000 to carry out the work. The capital proposed was therefore fixed at $6,000,000; one-third for Mr. Hargous and two-thirds for subscribers.

But it was also provided that if the work could be done for less than $6,000,000, Mr. Hargous was to have shares to the amount of only one-half of the real cost, so as to be entitled to one-third of the whole number of shares and no more. If the estimated cost of $6,000,000 were exceeded, then any further sum required was to be raised by loan, and Mr. Hargous' shares were to bear one-third of the burden of the loan, so as on all occasions and in any event to keep unimpaired the original proportion agreed on, viz. :—one-third for Mr. Hargous, and two-thirds for subscribers.

5. Mr. Hargous was to be reimbursed for his advance of half a million, but instead of cash he was to receive only one-fourth of it when the company should be actually organized, and the remainder in one, two, and three years from that date.

Pursuant to these agreements a deed of trust of the privileges possessed by Mr. Hargous has been executed to the following gentlemen, viz. :—Peter Conrey, Jr., Leonard Mathews, J. P. Benjamin, S. J. Peters, J. M. Lapeyre, and Bernard Fallon, and the control of the enterprise of a Tehuantepec railway is now vested in the City of New-Orleans, for a term which will expire on the 2d day of May, A. D. 1852.

In relation to the depth of the water at the mouth of the Coatzacalcoas the report says, that careful surveys show that the mouth of the river has "fourteen and a half feet depth at low water, for a width of fifty feet, and that the water gradually shoals on each side of this pass to thirteen and twelve and a half feet, which latter depth is maintained through a pass 350 feet wide. This bar, moreover, is of rock, and only eighty feet thick, admitting easily of being deepened, if necessary. But its present depth is entirely sufficient for a large class of steamships, and all doubt is now removed on the gulf shore."

Major Barnard, to whom was entrusted the examination of the harbor on the Pacific coast, reported to the committee that he considered himself warranted in assuring them that the entire enterprise was feasible, provided a harbor could be found on the Pacific coast. He had also suggested his impression that the roadstead on the Pacific coast would suffice for all commercial purposes, even if no harbor could be found. The committee have now the satisfaction to report that this impression has been confirmed since Maj. Barnard left for New-York, where he has made arrangements for the survey, as shown by the following extract of a letter to the committee, dated on the 29th of September, 1850 :

"I was well aware, and represented the fact to you, that a large part of our intercourse with Mexico during the war was carried on in this very way, in face of the violent northers which prevail in the gulf. Also, that steamers enter no harbor at Chagres, but lay off as unprotected as they would be at Tehuantepec, and that even at Panama they lay out in an open gulf. I could not feel much doubt about the matter, therefore; yet, not being a seaman, I could not speak with the confidence which professional knowledge would have given me. Since that time I have consulted several naval officers well qualified to give an opinion on the subject. Among others, Capt. Porter, of the Georgia; Lieut. Maury, of Washington, and Lieut. Radford, who has coasted along the shores of the gulf of Tehuantepec. They all, without any hesitation or qualification, express their belief in the practicability of the matter. Capt. Porter thinks that it is a better place than Chagres for steamers to touch, as the strong winds (and in this they all agree) are off the land."

LITERARY AND EDITORIAL DEPARTMENT.

1.—POPOCATEPETL.

AN EXCURSION TO THE HEIGHTS OF POPOCATEPETL.

THE following paper, prepared by Edward Thornton, Esq., attache to the British Legation in Mexico, has been kindly furnished us through our esteemed fellow-citizen, E. J. Forstall, now in that city. It is full of interest and novelty, and we could wish our citizens were more disposed to familiarize themselves with Mexican scenery by actual travel than they now are. We should like for a little while to reverse the interminable *northward* travel, and think that there are quite inducements enough to do so.—(ED.)

ON the 18th May, 1850, a party of eight of us started from Mexico with the determination of attempting the ascent of Popocatepetl. We consisted of three Englishmen, one Russian, two Spaniards and two Mexicans. The Russian and one of the Mexicans had come from Puebla to join our party. My two English companions and the Russian were men whom I was well acquainted with, and in whose endurance and energy I had full confidence. To improve, however, our natural strength, we went into regular training about three weeks before the day fixed for our expedition, taking walks of from sixteen to twenty miles a day, much to the astonishment of the Mexicans, whose apathetic souls could not imagine what could be the meaning or object of our rapid wanderings to and fro. With much difficulty I was enabled to procure an excellent English barometer of Carey's, besides which, I provided myself with two good thermometers, and a couple of tubes for the purpose of boiling water, in order to take the height of the mountain both by the barometer and by the degrees of the thermometer at boiling-water point.

The first eleven leagues of our journey was performed by diligence to Miraflores, a cotton-weaving manufactory, directed by a Scotchman, who gave us a most excellent breakfast, which we perhaps enjoyed the more from the conviction that we should certainly get nothing so good during the rest of our expedition. To this place we had sent on our horses, which we now mounted, and continued our journey to the hacienda, or farm of Tamariz, about five leagues farther, where we were to pass the night. For beds we were not at a loss; for each man had brought his own, mine consisting of a buffalo skin and a sheepskin overcoat, which is the bed I have generally carried about with me in traveling on horseback in this country, and on which I have sometimes slept very soundly. Here, however, I was not quite so fortunate, either from the constant passing and repassing of people through our room, or from the almost feverish anxiety I felt as to the possibility of our accomplishing the ascent of the mountain. Indeed, before we left Mexico, there had been so much rain, which of course had fallen in snow on the mountain, that our friends had made a joke of our attempting the ascent, and our own eyes convinced us that the snow had seldom been so low. The owner of the estate of Tamariz, who had himself succeeded in reaching the top of Popocatepetl on five different occasions, now gave his decided opinion, that we should be unable to get up at this season, and that we had at least better wait a day at his house with the hope of some of the snow melting, and to give him time to procure the necessary guides. The innate love of delay of the Mexicans is proverbial; I never have had the good fortune to see any people who could endure remaining so long at one time without any employment whatever, even, I believe, of their imagination. I question much whether the silent and solitary system would have half the effect upon them that it has upon the more energetic and impatient minds of the North. We therefore determined to resist this propensity to inaction, and insisted upon moving onwards. At 7 o'clock on the morning of the 19th, we were on horseback, and went to Amecamec, a large village about a mile from Tamariz, where we waited sometime, while some of our companions went to mass, others procured a guide, and we, true Englishmen, brought some beef for making beefsteaks, for fear our stock of provisions

might run short in case we might have to wait some days before we could get up the mountain. The guide we obtained here was the man who first descended the crater of Popocatepetl without any assistance but that of a stick; and now that I have seen the crater myself, I cannot but confess that it was a bold undertaking. Our road now began to ascend rapidly, and was reduced to a mountain-path through the most magnificent woods of spruce, fir and cedar. We soon agreed, that even if we were disappointed in the main object of our expedition, the delightful sensation we felt from the freshness of the air, and the perfume of the woods, and the grandly picturesque and ever-varying views of the broken sides of the mountain, and of the cultivated plain beneath, amply repaid us for the trouble we had taken. At every step Popocatepetl became more majestic, and our reverence for Ixtaisihuatl as rapidly diminished, though from Mexico both appear to be about the same size, the "White Lady" being much nearer than its loftier neighbor. After going on this way for about five leagues, and crossing some hills with little more than a scanty pasture for the cattle which wandered over them, we came upon a wood whose peculiar and strange character told us that we were close to the limits of vegetation. The trees, though generally large, were all of them more or less damaged by the lightning and wind; some with branches torn off, others split from top to bottom, more torn up by the roots, so as constantly to obstruct the way, and others remaining mere bare poles without either branches or bark, melancholy remnants of former beauty. I would have given much to have seen a violent thunderstorm in this spot, for it seems that in descending from the mountain it is here they spend their first fury, as if rejoicing in having found something to destroy. The soil here was nothing but black ashes, evidently thrown out in former times from the crater. Fortunately for us, though it was raining a good deal, the nature of the soil prevented its becoming slippery, as is generally very much the case in the ordinary paths in this country.

In the midst of these ghosts of trees was the habitation in which we were destined to pass the night; it was no more than a shepherd's hut, mere poles laid together and the interstices more or less filled up with grass. As for our horses, we were obliged to leave them in the open air, having barely enough room for ourselves; they did not seem to suffer from it, nor were they touched by the wolves, who were howling about us during both the nights we passed there, but who were easily frightened away by a couple of shots I got up about midnight to fire in the air. We arrived at this place, dignified with the name of the "Rancho de Tlamacas," at about 3 o'clock in the afternoon; and while others were collecting wood to make a fire for the purpose of cooking some of the beefsteaks we had bought at Amecamee, I set up my barometer and found the height to be 12,582.08 English feet, or 3,809.8 metres, a greater height than I had ever yet passed two nights at. The thermometer at this place was 10° centigrade in the shade at 4, P. M. After having tolerably enjoyed such a dinner as we had, we held a council of war, and it was decided that we should start at three o'clock the next morning, in order to get to the summit of the mountain at an early hour. As it was now getting late, and again began to rain pretty heavily, we resolved to endeavor to get some sleep. As the hut at our principal headquarters was small for so many people, the Russian, one of the Mexicans and myself, thought it more prudent to retreat to another not many yards distant, but not in such good repair; indeed, we found the rain and wind were penetrating in every direction; however, we put our India rubber cloaks upon the roof, and thus contrived to keep ourselves tolerably dry. A large fire was likewise made inside the hut, which, though it made our unaccustomed eyes weep most uncomfortably, somewhat tempered the coldness of the wind. It continued raining, and about half a mile higher up, snowing, till two o'clock in the morning of the 20th, so that none of us thought it worth while getting up till daylight, when my two friends and myself went to the lower hut, and found that the guides were bent upon persuading us that the ascent was impossible; they had already sent out two Indians to explore the road, and report upon its state, who, as I observed, would certainly pronounce it impracticable. They returned in a short time, saying that

the snow was from three to four feet deep. The guides, however, had obstinate subjects to deal with, and after much discussion and talking, it was determined we should make the attempt.

To my great joy we were ready to start, and on horseback, at a quarter before seven. I was armed with my barometer, two thermometers and two glass tubes,—carefully packed in tin cases, and a compass, besides some bread and meat strapped round my waist, and a flask of water. I carried about fourteen pounds weight more than the rest of the party, which in climbing a mountain makes a most sensible difference. We were all provided with long sticks armed with iron points, which were made under my direction, such as those which have frequently done me good service in the Alps. For our eyes, of which we had been constantly warned to be particularly careful, I had goggles entirely covering the eye, made of very fine wire, which I found protected the eye as much as green spectacles, and kept it cooler from the ventilation they allowed. This was all I had, but the rest, besides spectacles or goggles, had black crape quadruple over their eyes, and double over the rest of their faces. Five minutes' more brought us on the snow; the ground was exceedingly heavy, partly from the snow, but principally from the deep sand or ashes with which the sides of the mountain are covered. My horse, which was a cross-breed, between a Mexican and American, and was unaccustomed to mountain climbing, soon began to blow so much that I took compassion upon him, dismounted, and took to steady walking, which soon took me ahead of the horses, who were constantly obliged to stop for breath. Another Englishman dismounted at the same moment, and soon after the third Englishman and the Russian. The remainder of the party continued a considerable distance on horseback, one or two of them pushing their horses almost cruelly; but they were accustomed to the work, and none of them suffered severely. One of the Mexicans,—finding his horse could not be persuaded to go so far as the rest, gave up the expedition, and went back. My first companion on foot, who was a much lighter man than myself, stepped over the snow without even breaking the crust, whilst I, with my greater weight and the additional weight I carried, sank deep into the snow and sand, naturally rendering my work much more fatiguing.

Our course was at first directed towards the east side of the mountain, where there was much less snow than on the north side, or that nearest to Mexico, so that in the beginning the ascent was very gradual. This direction gave us a constant view on our left of the valley of Puebla, where the snow-clad top of the Malinche was perfectly clear; the valley generally was covered with a mass of white clouds, which had all the appearance, seen from above, of the foaming waves of the sea. Overhead, all was clear. At about half way up, the three Englishmen and the Russian had got very considerably in advance of the rest, and our first guide (for there were two) declared that we must wait till the whole joined us. We, therefore, chose a point where there was little or no snow, lay down and availed ourselves of the opportunity to eat a little bread and meat. Our complaints, however, were bitter at being thus delayed, and we made many fruitless attempts to persuade the guide to move on. In an hour's time we were all assembled, and our first guide, a little piqued at our insinuations in our endeavors to make him go on, that he was tired, made a fresh start at a rapid pace and straight up the mountain, instead of in our former slanting direction. This sudden burst took me aback, and as it was over broken rocks, it was very inconvenient with my barometer slung over my shoulders, of which I was obliged to take great care. I now began to feel the weight so much, that I asked the guide whether he would carry the barometer, expecting to meet with a plump refusal; however, he was kind enough to take charge of it, and as he was always before me, I kept my eye upon it to see that he did not knock it about. On the lower part of the mountain where the ascent was not very rapid, and the snow not above our knees, we generally went about sixty paces at a time, and then stopped to rest. I almost from the beginning had followed the example set me by the guide, who, every time we stopped, threw himself down upon the snow, which I found relieved me exceedingly; and as I wore a flannel jacket and trowsers,

such as are used for playing cricket, they had not time at each stoppage to get wet with the melting of the snow. But now, as we approached the summit, the inclination being about 75 degrees, and the snow above our thighs, it was with the greatest difficulty we could do more than fifteen paces at a time. Not a hundred yards from the little house which has been built by the company engaged in extracting sulphur from the crater, and to reach which was our present aim, our guide declared he was too tired any longer to take the lead, and that one of us two Englishmen, who were close to him, must do so. I volunteered, but after about forty yards, found it was beyond my strength, whereupon my companion, who was the strongest of us, went first and took us up to the little house, where the three Englishmen arrived within a few minutes of each other, at half-past twelve, having been five hours and three-quarters from the time we started; I came in second, in which I thought myself very fortunate, considering the extra weight I carried. We found the door locked, but as a great part of the shingle-roof had been carried away by the storm which did so much mischief in Mexico last Good Friday, the first man scrambled through the aperture and broke open the door from the inside. This little house, or room, which was now half full of snow, and was built by the director of the sulphur-works for himself, is about 100 feet below the lower lip of the crater, and looks due east over the valley of Puebla. It is built of timber which was brought upon the backs of Indians, and I am assured that a beam weighing two hundred pounds, was brought up by an Indian in two days, from the limits of vegetation. The same man afterwards slipped in going down the crater, and died of the bruises he received in the fall.

After resting a minute we sang God save the Queen, with lively voices, by way of proving to each other that our lungs had not been damaged by the ascent; and though, if I had any fears about my powers of endurance, it was on this particular point, I was gratified to find that I did not suffer in the least. Then burst forth one unanimous exclamation of admiration at the magnificence and extent of the view which now lay before us, particularly of the valley of Puebla, from which the clouds had now all disappeared, with the exception of a lingerer which still covered the town of Puebla itself. From our feet straight down to the limits of vegetation was one sheet of snow, without a rock or a stone to break its unity; then vast woods, then towns and villages dotted over the cultivated lands, but all seen exceedingly clear, even with the naked eye—a peculiarity which I have never observed in any country so much as in the high table land of Mexico; the eye could even distinguish the different green of the sugar plantations in the "Tierra Caliente," far away. Nature, however, likewise reminded us that our appetites were in pretty good order, and we fell upon the little we had brought with us, drank some brandy and water, and those who smoked enjoyed their segars—these latter incidents, to prove the possibility of things which our friends in the lower regions assured us were impossible at such an elevation; neither could we boast of having suffered any severe pain in our ears, or any swelling of the veins, as I was assured would be the case, before we began the ascent. That our guide was very much fatigued, and that after coming down in the evening he was attacked with a most severe inflammation of the eyes, which rendered him for the time entirely blind, was, I believe, owing entirely to his own imprudence; for he took up with him a bottle of very strong Catalan, to which he applied himself constantly and vigorously. We were not a little surprised, while we were eating our ration of bread and meat, at the appearance of a mouse, who was exceedingly tame, and eat with avidity the crumbs we threw him; the director of the Sulphur works assured us that he was indigenous, though even he could not explain to himself what he generally lived upon; and further, that there were two other species of mice he was in the habit of seeing there constantly.

My next care was to set up my barometer. One of the thermometers I found broken, how I cannot imagine, for I had packed them very carefully, and had never let them out of my own hands; however, I considered myself very fortunate that I had brought up two of them. The height of the little house I have mentioned above, and which the Director entitled the "Rancho del Espejo," is,

according to my barometer, 17,277.6 English feet, or 5,231.2 metres. In the year 1826 the mountain was ascended by Mr. William Glennie and his brother, on the north-west side, and a barometrical observation was taken by the former on the highest peak, which is on the west side of the crater. The height calculated by him was 17,898 English feet, and we conjectured that that peak was about 500 feet higher than the lower lip of the crater, and the Rancho del Espejo about one hundred feet below the latter; so that in fact my observation is a confirmation of that taken by Mr. W. Glennie. We did not go to this point, because, on account of the broken nature of the mountain, it would have cost about four hours' more hard labor to have got to it, which we did not think worth while for so small an elevation. The thermometer, in the shade, was at 3° centigrade, the snow was melting in the sun, but froze immediately as it fell from the roof on the shady side; for at this elevation, as even at Mexico, water freezes much above the freezing point marked on the thermometer. In endeavoring to melt some snow in one of my glass tubes, in which to boil the thermometer, the tube burst; I however succeeded in melting some more sufficiently to boil in the other tube, and found the boiling point to be 184° Fahrenheit; at the Rancho de Tlamacas it was 192°, and at Mexico 200°. But as the thermometers were not on a very large scale, it was extremely difficult to mark the number of degrees in the boiling water with any great exactness.

Great as was the impression which the first view of the crater made upon me, it is impossible for me to give any adequate description of it. The ascent to it from the Rancho del Espejo was so rapid that we came upon it of a sudden, the snow reaching to the very brink. It required a tolerably good head not to be a little bewildered at so suddenly coming upon the edge of a perpendicular depth of 1,000 feet, which is certainly no exaggeration of that of the crater, even from the lower lip; from the highest peak it must be 1,500 feet. The form is rather more oval than circular, and the distance across from east to west, about 3,000 feet; the sides are nearly perpendicular all round; on the north-east side, however, there is a steep descent to a small terrace, upon which a whinney has been fixed, on the very edge of the crater, for the purpose of letting down and drawing up the man employed in getting sulphur from below, and of raising the sulphur; the rope of this whinney is 250 measured varas, perpendicular depth, or 687 feet. The surface of the bottom of the crater is sprinkled with from forty to fifty jets, from which smoke is constantly issuing, some more, some less; in some of them large stones are boiling one over another, like the bubbles of boiling water, being sometimes of a bright yellow color, which remains for a moment and disappears; the smoke emitted has a most nauseous smell of sulphur. All this is accompanied with a constant rumbling noise, like a heavy surf breaking over a rocky shore. The director assured us there was a stream in the bottom so strong that it burnt holes in the clothes of the workmen; he said it lost itself in the bosom of the mountain. Large masses of stone are being constantly detached from the sides of the crater, which go thundering down to the bottom, to the great risk of the workmen, one of whom had been killed some days before by a stone falling upon his head. This was the danger which principally deterred us from descending into the crater, which we could see very well from above. From conversations I have had with Mr. Frederick Glennie, who went up in 1826, I should say the volcano has become much less active; for he tells me that besides the constant rumbling noise which I have described, there was occasionally a loud explosion, and that stones were thrown up above the crater, falling on the sides of the mountain. We saw nothing of this sort.

A vast quantity of very pure sulphur is found in the crater, principally in the crevices of the sides, where it crystallizes; as much as 100 arrobas (2,500 lbs.) has been taken out in a day by the six Indians now employed there, who generally remain in the crater for five days at a time, sleeping under a rock, so as not to be touched by the falling stones. They are paid a rial for every arroba they produce, but lately it has been found difficult to procure sufficient workmen, from the well founded dread they have of the falling stones. One of my English companions begged the director to let him take a few specimens of sulphur for his friends

in Mexico. "Como!" exclaimed he. "No este Ingles?" "Si, Senor." "Pues siempre medicen que los Ingleses no tienen amigos." The expression of such a sentiment on the top of Popocatepetl produced a hearty laugh from all three of us.

On our return to the Rancho del Espejo, we found our Russian friend had arrived about an hour after us, and an hour and a half later the remaining Mexican and the two Spaniards made their appearance. The Mexican had almost fainted on the way, from fatigue and cold, and had been obliged to warm himself by sitting close to a crack in the rock on the side of the mountain, from which a sulphurous smoke was constantly ng; however, though weaker than any of us in physical force, he possessed great moral energy and perseverance, and we complimented him highly on his reaching the top.

We had intended to pass the night at the little house, in order to see the sun rise the next morning, and had therefore dispatched some Indians, before starting, with some blankets; but as now we began to feel the cold bitterly, and as the Indians did not appear, the three Englishmen and the Russian determined to go down again to the Rancho de Tlamacas; the two Spaniards and the Mexican were too much fatigued to descend, and as they had "Zerapes," they passed the night on the top with two guides. One of the Spaniards, and another of the guides, were attacked with so severe an inflammation of the eyes, that they were obliged to be led down the next morning, without even having had the satisfaction of seeing the crater. In my opinion this was principally owing to their own imprudence. Neither did any of them see the sun rise the next morning, for it was cloudy. What had cost us 5¾ hours of hard labor in ascending, we went down in an hour and ten minutes; for it was very easy work running down in the snow, compared to what we had gone through in the morning; from the pace we went, I should say the distance between the Rancho del Espejo and the Rancho de Tlamacas was at least six English miles.

There is nothing dangerous in the ascent of the mountain, though it is extremely fatiguing, and I fully appreciate the energy of the Englishmen who made the first ascent in 1826, who were unable to persuade any guides or Indians to go up with them; who, in perfect ignorance, took the most difficult side, and who were fifteen hours getting to the top. We returned to Mexico on the 22d of May, and received many congratulations from our friends, who did not imagine we should be able to get to the top, as they had had constant rain since our departure. Two days after my return, the whole of the skin of my face, ears and neck, had peeled off, and even the under skin is so browned that it will probably not recover its natural color for a month or two. This I attribute to my not having covered my face like the rest, and to the cold air, quite as much as the hot sun.

2.—STANZAS.

THE struggle is over, the parting is past—
Thou art gone from thine own sunny country at last— [thy sight
With a shade on thy brow, and a mist on
Thou hast breathed to thy home—a last, mournful "good night."

Thou art gone, and I stand with a desolate heart,
On the spot where I saw thee, in sadness, departed; [ous and fair—
Thou art gone, and the world looks less glori-
Than when thy bright beauty, oh! loved-one, was here.

Yes! loved! let me speak the deep-passionate word,
Tho' hereafter its tones be forever unheard—
At least till I pour out my full heart to thee,
And learn what its hopes and its future may be.

I have worshipped before, at full many a shrine— [than thine—
have bowed to a grace far less winning

But never! ah! never, hath *real* love stole,
As now it hath done to the depths of my soul.

I knew not, I dreamed not, how mighty the spell [farewell—
That my spirit had owned, till I bade thee
I knew not, I dreamed not love's fetters could bind [and mind.
With a grasp so relentless—heart, feeling

Did my voice at our parting seem careless and free, [the sea?
As I stood by thy side, and looked out on
The sea—for whose breezes the white sails unfurled [world.
Were departing with one I loved best in the

Ah! the gladness was feigned, and the lightness a lie—
There *were tears in my soul*—tho' they filled not the eye;
'Twas a time, when e'en hope for the moment had flown,
And my spirit seemed utterly, bitterly lone.

P. H. H.

3.—RED RIVER RAFT AND REGION.

The following letter from Capt. Bayley, of the State Engineer Corps, is so full of interesting material in regard to a portion of western Louisiana, Texas, &c., that we give it publication with great pleasure. The importance of this vast country is not, we believe, sufficiently realized now. It must become the seat of population, wealth and power, and occupy a controlling position in the South. Capt. Bayley gives us the gratifying intelligence that the planters of Red River have been abundantly favored the present season, and are fast forgetting the reverses of the past one. [Ed.]

State Engineer's Office,
Baton Rouge, Dec. 1, 1850.

To J. D. B. DeBow, Esq.

This river, navigable or susceptible of being made so, for a distance of 1500 miles from the Mississippi, through a country unequalled in fertility and richness of soil, is destined one day to be the garden spot of the South. Peculiar in its character, unrivalled in its resources, it presents a field for observation and study differing in many respects from the other tributaries of the Mississippi. The changes which have been effected by former rafts, and those now in progress, in consequence of the present one, are peculiar features in the history of Red River. These must be examined attentively —causes and effects thoroughly understood, before a correct opinion can be formed as to the best plan for the permanent improvement of this river.

The valley of Red River is very similar to that of the Mississippi, being entirely alluvial and covered with a dense growth of heavy timber. The immediate banks of the river are considerably elevated above the adjacent lands, and are easily acted upon by the force of the current; in consequence a large amount of sedimentary matter is held in suspension by the water. The declination of the river is very irregular, but is said to average eight inches per mile. My own opinion is, that it will not exceed six.

At a low stage, the water on the shoals is from three to five feet deep.

The old raft of Red River at one time commenced near Natchitoches. Above this lower section, I conceive, the river must have been comparatively clear and open as high as the Cashatta Chute.

At the time the removal of the raft was commenced by the United States, the lower end was at Loggy Bayou, some forty miles above Cashatta. We are informed that the Governor of Louisiana ordered the troops stationed at Natchitoches to break up and cause to float off all the lower part of the raft. This, and the natural decay of the timber, will account for the disappearance of the raft below Loggy Bayou, when we consider likewise the force of the currents and amount of water passing out of the mouths of Bayou Pierre, Cashatta Chute and Loggy Bayou. All the water passing out of Red River above, on the East and West, had of necessity to return to the main stream through the bayous above named, on account of the proximity of the highlands to the river, at their several mouths. It is evident that the lower part of the raft, already weakened by decay, would finally yield to the force of the current from these bayous and pass off.

Before the commencement of the formation of raft, the river between Shreveport and Grand Ecore must have been wide, with high banks, and of sufficient capacity to discharge all the water coming from above, as is the case now below Grand Ecore, and above the raft and its influence. It is very possible that the raft may at one time have extended below Alexandria, and have been occasioned by the back water from the Mississippi soon after Red River forsook its legitimate channel to the Gulf (the Atchafalaya); or it may have originated from the accidental collection of a family of snags which arrested the drift. Whether the one or the other was the original cause or not, is comparatively unimportant. The effects and their removal are the subjects requiring most attention.

As before stated, the banks of Red River cave easily and rapidly; it follows that an immense number of trees fall into the river annually. These trees are carried along by the force of the current at high water, and are firmly wedged into the raft. From one to two miles is added to the raft in this manner every year.

The raft acts as a dam, the water is raised many feet above its natural level, and makes its escape laterally over its banks.

The back water extends many miles, and

all the valley on each side, and for a long distance above, is inundated—submerged.

The earthy matter held in suspension by the water being deposited in the raft, soon fills up the channel and makes the dam almost a perfect one. The loss of current above causes a deposit to be made in the bed of the river, and in consequence the lateral overflow is increased. From one to two miles of the whole valley of Red River is thus ruined every year.

Bodeau Lake was once a prairie; Soda and Clear Lakes were dry land; and Caddo Prairie, which five years ago was above the reach of overflow and one of the most fertile bodies of land in Louisiana, is now, at high water, overflowed from five to ten feet. Long Prairie, in Arkansas, as well as the whole valley, will soon share its fate.

Let us consider in what manner we must apply our remedy. Simply removing the raft will not answer;—the river below has become too contracted, and is too much obstructed by snags and by willows, &c. growing beneath its banks, to carry off the drift; the raft would form again immediately, and all we should accomplish by the simple removal of the raft, would be the ruin of the plantations for thirty or forty miles below by overflow, and the ruin of the river for navigation by filling it with snags.

On account of the river running along the base of the highlands, to the east of the valley, at the site of the present rafts, the water escaping from Red River passes out to the west through Lake Soda, Cross Lake and Cross Bayou, or through Lake Soda and Twelve Mile Bayou, into the river again just above Shreveport. Fully two thirds of the water takes the route through Cross Lake and bayou. A large proportion of the water which finds its way through the raft, determined by the back water from below at a high stage, passes off to the east, through Willow Chute, Benoit's Bayou, &c., and contributes to overflow the lower part of Bossier Parish. In consequence of the water leaving the river above only on the west, it is in a manner concentrated. It has accordingly cut out for itself several channels. The principal one of these is through what is called Dooly's Bayou, connecting with the Pass between Clear and Soda Lakes, above Ferry Lake. It is very direct, is enlarging very rapidly, and will, if properly assisted, soon supersede all the others. It is already of sufficient capacity to admit the passage of the largest size boats running to Shreveport, at a high or medium stage of water. Extensive bars, covered with willows, are encroaching upon Lake Soda on the east and north. The water, being confined to a narrower space by each year's formation, is deepening. The same is the case with Cross Lake. Cross Bayou, (already larger and deeper than Red River itself,) at a low stage of the water, is twelve feet lower than the level of Cross Lake, and divided from it by a ridge only twenty-five hundred feet wide.

The current has already made considerable progress in cutting through this ridge, and with the assistance that is now being given to it, in the shape of a ditch, will probably complete the same during the next period of high water.

The area of Cross Lake being from twenty-five to thirty square miles, it will readily be perceived that should it be drained ten or twelve feet below the usual low water mark, the period of *good* low water navigation in Red River will be much extended. Cross Lake will act as a reservoir, and supply water to Red River every year at the time it is most needed.

The distance by way of Dooly's Bayou, from Red River at Cashatta Bluffs to Shreveport, is about forty miles. By the river, between the same points, it is seventy. I am convinced that the whole river can be made to adopt this route through Dooly's Bayou, and abandon entirely the old channel. The work required to open and improve it would be heavy; but we should have the assistance of a powerful current, caused by a fall of nearly a foot per mile. The *cut-off* (as I will term this route) completed, we should have reclaimed the whole valley to the east, and contributed much towards the reclamation of the lower part of Bossier Parish. By leaving the raft where it is, we preserve the river below in a good condition, and are enabled to free it entirely from snags.

The head of the raft is at present about four miles below Dooly's Bayou—this four miles would accommodate from two to three years' raft. In the bend opposite and below

Dooly's Bayou, there is a large lake, divided from the river by a strip of low land about one hundred yards wide. By cleaving the banks we can throw the drift into this lake, and it is of sufficient size to accommodate ten years of raft. Above we have many lakes, some very large, capable of being made reservoirs for drift. Several lakes adjoining Dooly's Bayou, as well as Shiftail and Soda Lakes, can be made to receive raft. It is sufficient to say, that all the raft that ever will come down can be disposed of so as to prevent injury to the route recommended. Our next step would be to lessen the quantity of drift from above. This could be accomplished by cleaving the banks above for a distance of four or five hundred miles, and deadening the timber still further back for the same distance. By the time the river would cave its banks through the cleared land to the deadened timber, said timber would be so much decayed as to be harmless. The lands on upper Red River, for hundreds of miles, are equal to any in the world; a navigation which can be relied upon, is all that is required to induce settlement. The whole valley is peculiarly adapted to the cultivation of cotton, more so, perhaps, than lower Red River. Every plantation cleared lessens the quantity of falling timber, and confidence once established, that navigation will be maintained, ten or fifteen years will place the river beyond the reach of danger from raft.

Provided the raft is removed, in preference to opening the route to the west, it would be indispensably necessary to clear the river above and below perfectly. Below, that it might be enabled to pass off the drift, and above, to lessen the quantity. It is susceptible of proof, from the experience gained by the removal of the old raft, that the removal of the present one would not materially improve the old channel; and further, that it would not prevent the largest portion of the water from taking the route through Dooly's Bayou and the lakes. I will premise, however, that in consequence of the water leaving Red River only on the west, Dooly's Bayou is much farther advanced as a channel than Bayou Pierre was at the time the original raft was removed.

Mr. Shreve, when he removed the old raft, followed all the old bends, (with two exceptions,) and closed all the outlets, with the expectation that the river would enlarge itself sufficiently to carry off all the water. From ten to fifteen years have failed to accomplish this: it is true, the river is much larger than it was, but it is not half large enough yet. Bayou Pierre is about one hundred miles shorter than by Red River, between same points, and, as is the case with both *sides* of the valley, is much lower than the river.

Had the raft not been touched, one half the amount expended upon it would have opened Bayou Pierre, and made it Red River. Had this been done, all the lands to the east, comprising the whole valley, would have been reclaimed. Had all the large bends been cut off, instead of going round them, perhaps there might have been sufficient current to cut out Red River and make it large enough to accommodate all the water. As it is, the water naturally takes the nearest route through the lowlands on the east and west—on the east, through Willow Chute, Williams' Bayou, Benoit's Bayou, and a multitude of others, into Bodeau, Red Chute, Flatte River, &c., and through Loggy and Cashatta back into Red River; on the west, through the head of Bayou Pierre, Anderson's Bayou, Sand Beach River, Tones' Bayou, Pascagoula, Prairie River, Grand Bayou, &c., into Bayou Pierre, and through Bayou Winsey and the different mouths of Bayou Pierre, back into Red River. The water is so divided that it fails to make either route large enough, and in consequence but a narrow strip of land on the immediate banks of Red River is susceptible of cultivation.

As it *would be* at the present raft, so *is it now*, below Shreveport. Within fifty miles of Shreveport the water is abandoning Red River, notwithstanding that the raft was removed and the lateral outlets closed. I go much farther, and assert (what will appear strange to many, and unworthy of belief, but it is nevertheless the result of actual observation that nothing but extensive cuts-off will prevent nine tenths of the water in Red River from passing into Bayou Pierre, and ruining low water navigation within a few years.

Red River should be thoroughly cleared from snags, and all timber growing beneath

its banks cut close to the ground and into short pieces, from the foot of the raft to the Mississippi. A canal or channel should be cut fifty feet wide through the falls at Alexandria, and all the waters thrown into said channel by walls laid in cement, upon the rocks across the balance of the river.

Two hundred thousand dollars would be necessary for the completion of all the works recommended; but still, should the contemplated appropriation of eighty thousand by the United States be made, and *judiciously* expended in the vicinity of the raft and above, a good navigation can be given to upper Red River.

The last appropriation was utterly thrown away. The raft was re-formed in three weeks after its removal, and the river below nearly ruined by snags from the said raft.

G. W. R. Bayley,
Assistant State Engineer.

4.—THE CAUSE OF THE SOUTH.

When we warned the South in our July number, last year, that the time had come to light up the torches of industry throughout her limits, we were denounced by many leading Southern presses as recreant to the duties of our post, and told in emphatic terms that the torches that would be lit up would very likely be of an altogether different character.

For many years—it pains us to say it—we have been unable to contemplate, without a feeling of gloom and despondency, the future of a confederacy, which, springing from the throes of a revolution, grew up to wealth, and power, and opulence, in the memory of living men, without a precedent in the history of mankind. The concealed and creeping worm insidiously working its way into the core of the towering and gigantic oak; the hectic flush deepening and fading upon the cheek of beauty, and manhood, and strength, furnished but inapt parallels of the "threatening death" that lurked hideously at the heart of all this prosperity and power—

> "Voluminous and vast, a serpent armed
> With mortal sting."

It matters not how this fell hydra has been engendered, who first nursed its being, or whether, as is asserted, the South has had some responsibility in it;—the naked fact stands out, that it has crept up from slime and filth to the topmost column of the national temple, and sits chuckingly there, with its dire fangs fixed in the very vitals of the republic.

There are two things upon which the whole South seems now agreed, *as one man*, whatever minor points may separate us;—and these are, *that grievous wrongs have been done, as well as gratuitous insults offered us, by the free States of the North, and the Congress of the Union, and that the cup of forbearance or endurance is so full that a single drop shall make it overflow.* This is substantially the position, though weakened by other declarations, taken even at the "Great Union Meeting" held in December in New-Orleans, a city which has hitherto been considered throughout the South lukewarm in the cause which has united her people together.

The cup of endurance is full! Are we in earnest, men of the South, in this declaration, and do we realize in all its force how much is involved in it? *Is this the Southern platform?* Thank God if we had such a platform to stand upon and unite together upon, we could then be respectable, could be feared, could present an unbroken phalanx to the invader, and bid him move, and die.

A SINGLE DROP MORE!

Are we satisfied by the past, fellow citizens—by the resolves of public meetings and of State Legislatures of the North; by the tone of sentiment which is marked in its press, and is heard everywhere, even in the highest circles, among its people; by its growing majorities, flushed with success and victory? Are we justified in believing, or even in hoping, that the remaining *drop* will not be poured out to swell over the already brimming cup?

We would not be alarmists, nor so passionate as to refuse an ear to reason, when it is offered; but in God's name, let us not be lulled too easily into security, where so much of honor, and liberty, and existence, are at stake.

If we could see it written upon the vault of heaven, by the hand of an archangel, or if a revelation were made to us as indisputable as the Holy Scriptures, that, sated

with past victories, the free States of the North were now disposed to pause, and forever arrest the hand of aggression, we should hail the Union again with exultation, as our fathers hailed it, and, burying the remembrance of all our grievances, dire as they have been, shake hands in fellowship, and shout heartfelt hosannas to its *perpetuity*.

But alas for us, we are so constituted as not to be satisfied with the evidences many of our best friends are relying upon, that the danger is over, that the hatchet is buried, peace proclaimed, and the South called upon only to rejoice and be exceeding glad at her great salvation.

At least, it would seem the part of wisdom and discretion to guard against the *possibility* of future dangers, or to prepare to meet them, should they be precipitated upon us in spite of all our efforts and our hopes. It is in the power of the South to save the Union, but it will require her *united* and *concerted* action to do it. We therefore favor,—

1. *A Southern Convention*—a Convention of the whole of the slave States, in which, disregarding all points of difference, it shall be laid down in distinct and unmistakeable terms, what will constitute, in the judgment of *all* of them, a ground for *resistance*, or for the establishment, should necessity demand even that extreme, of a separate Confederation. This fixed—and there would assuredly be little difficulty in doing it—it would be the duty, perhaps, of those States who are already insisting upon action, to yield their own preferences, for the general good of the South. Common interests and common dangers should unite us, and upon this platform we would be irresistible. We believe that the South can be united now, and that a Convention of our States will resolve unanimously, and with enthusiasm, that with a single move more upon the part of the North, the "Rubicon" will be passed forever. This combined action seems to us the only one likely to be effective, however high our admiration and regard for those gallant States who are now disposed, solitary and alone, to strike for their rights, and leap, Curtius-like, into the yawning chasm.

We are in favor of a Convention, not exactly like that of Nashville, which represented but a few States, but one of *all the South*, elected by the people, and charged to demand, like the Barons of Runningmead, the *great charter* of their liberties, or, like the Parliament of England, their *bill of inalienable rights*.

Perhaps this Convention may save the Union, and *perpetuate* it. We think it will. At all events, such a Convention could not endanger the Union, unless its further preservation would be a crime.

2. We are in favor of a *Southern Mercantile Convention*, as a present proper means of strengthening the South and enabling her to retain at home the millions of wealth now contributed to the North, by building our own ships and conducting our own trade with foreign powers, and realizing all of the immense benefits to be derived therefrom. There has never been any good reason for our subserviency in this particular, and there cannot be now, when our favors are received with systematic abuse. We are glad to hail already a movement in this behalf in some of the Southern States.

3. We propose, too, a *Southern Manufacturing Convention*, and that we agree to manufacture at home every bale of cotton that we eventually consume, and pay no more tribute to Northern looms. It is in the power of the South, if she pleases, to hush the sound of every spindle in New-England; and if she has the power, should she be so merciful as not to use it? Much cause has she, indeed, for forbearance!

4. We are for diversifying in every way our industry, and sending out of our limits for nothing that we can make within them. Has the North iron, and coal, and granite, marble and other minerals? So have we, in bountiful profusion, needing but the willing hand to develope them. Let us build railroads and plank roads, and invest in them our surplus capital, and foster such improvements in spite of every discouragement.

5. Let our people cease their annual migrations to the North, in which they squander millions, which, if retained at home, would give new life to every branch of domestic employment with us. We have watering places that need but *fashion* to make them equal, if not superior, to Saratoga or Cape May, with none of their disadvantages. Our

children should be educated at home; yet at this moment there are thousands of Southern youth rejoicing at Cambridge, or Yale, or Amherst, and similar institutions, whilst our own Colleges and Universities have but a stagnant life. We should encourage our own literature, as well as educate our children. A Southern periodical or a Southern book is a *rara avis*, whilst every shelf or table at the South groans under the product of Northern brains. Good this product *may be*—but is there nothing good, fellow citizens, except beyond the limits of Nazareth?

Thus much we have written, though hastily and disjointedly, without, as we think, going a step beyond what every true friend of the South, whatever his other views, will regard as orthodox, and as demanded by a proper regard for the future welfare and safety of our people. We have spoken sober truths, without prejudice or passion, and intreat for them a patient hearing.

Individually we might have gone much farther in counselling *action*, had our sense of past wrongs and hopelessness of future rights been allowed to influence us entirely. We honestly differ in regard to these matters from our friends, who appear to be in an immense majority throughout the South, and the heart of true patriotism will make many concessions.

With these remarks we conclude our present paper, after making several extracts from pamphlets on the table before us which have sprung out of the present troubled state of things at the South. Though we may not agree always with the authors in opinion, there are many sound truths expressed by them, which should be proclaimed throughout all our limits.

POWER AND RESOURCES OF THE SOUTH.

We abstract the following from the very able address of John Townsend, Esq., in which he exhausts the subjects of Northern aggression and Southern power of resistance, should that evil day, which God forbid, ever be forced upon us:—

In order to understand the abundant resources of the Southern States, towards becoming a great, powerful, and independent nation, capable of protecting herself from all aggression from abroad, or at home; and of becoming wealthy and prosperous to a degree heretofore seldom enjoyed by any people; examine first, the map of the United States, and then indulge in certain considerations, which obviously present themselves, but which the occasion will allow us, only very briefly to glance at.

Beginning at the Capes of the Delaware, go up that bay until we reach the Southern boundary of Pennsylvania. Pursue that boundary west, to the Ohio river; then down that river to its junction with the Mississippi; then up that river to the northern boundary of the State of Missouri; then around the northern and the western boundary of that State, to the line of 36° 30′; thence west on that line to the Pacific Ocean. Or, if it be preferred, until it strikes the upper waters of the Rio Grande; then down that river to the Gulf of Mexico; and thence, around to the Atlantic. Within these boundaries we have "The Southern United States of North America,"—as magnificent a country as ever the sun shone upon; solid, compact, and self-supporting for all purposes of defence,—with noble rivers, a fertile soil, great mineral resources, a genial climate, for all purposes of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce; and with a population at this time, of about 6,000,000 whites,—a hardy race, enterprising, courageous, intelligent, and generous; but unhappily for themselves, too confiding in those who are lulling them into security, to betray and then ruin them. These States also possess a black population of about 3,000,000,—a docile, obedient, orderly, and athletic people;—when let alone, happy, contented, and attached to their owners; and with their labor directed by the superior intelligence of the white race, and aided by their capital, constituting one of the most efficient and profitable classes of laborers in the world.

Examining these States next, in their capabilities to afford sustenance and wealth to man; we find them producing a superabundance of meats, and fruits, and grains and roots; and yielding for a large export, the most valuable agricultural staples that the world knows:—staples which bring millions of people, in other nations, dependent upon them for the raw material; upon which again depend the manufactures and the commerce of those nations. The cotton, rice, tobacco, sugar, and other articles exported from those States, amount to over $95,000,000, annually, besides what are kept back, and used freely for their own comforts, or manufactures at home. This affords, not only a very large income to the inhabitants, but as imports are in proportion to exports, and the revenue of a nation in proportion to its imports, it will afford, at a moderate tariff of duties, an overflowing treasury, which will enable the Southern United States to do, (what has heretofore been denied them,) and that is, by expending within themselves, and for their own benefit, those immense sums which have been hitherto extorted from them, and squandered elsewhere, amply to fortify themselves, and develope their own mighty, but dormant resources. How different will be

the aspect of things in the whole South, when this tide of wealth is dammed up within our own borders, and made to roll back among our own people; and when our immense capital is employed by our own merchants in establishing a direct trade, between our own Southern ports, and our customers all over the world. Then every vulnerable point will be protected by an ample fortification; then every suitable harbor will have its well appointed dock-yard, and our navy will soon rank with the proudest. Then every river, harbor, channel, or bank, will be surveyed and mapped out for the security of our commerce. Then, *when we have our own* and it is *spent among ourselves*, will the unaccustomed nourishment be diffused through the whole system, and its vivifying influence be felt in every pore. The arts will revive, manufactures will spring up around us; our agriculture will rear its drooping head, our commerce will expand; mechanic labor, meeting with ample rewards, will pour in upon us, and emigration, no longer discouraged by the uninviting aspect of our country, will flock to our shores. And then, as the consequence of all these things, will we exhibit to mankind, a refutation of the calumny of our enemies, which attributes the impoverished condition of things at the South to the institution of slavery among us, and not rather to the systematic robbery of our National Legislature, (where we are in hopeless minority,) by which the immense revenues drawn annually from Southern labor, is disbursed almost entirely at the North, for the encouragement of the labor of that section.

WEALTH OF THE SOUTH.

We take this from an admirable address delivered by Wm. E. Martin, on the celebration of the anniversary of Fort Moultrie. This address is so interesting in many particulars, that we shall hereafter have occasion to extract more largely from it:

The crop of the whole world cannot be accurately estimated, for want of correct accounts of the quantity consumed in India, and exported thence to China. We may, by approximation, however, arrive at a conclusion sufficient to illustrate our views. The quantity imported into the whole of Europe, from all parts of the world, during the years 1846, 1847, 1848,* and 1849, reached 11,502,000 bags of 300 lbs., which, at the average of prices for these years, 8½ cents,† was worth $293,301,000. The production of cotton in the United States commenced in 1790, and in the next year only 81 bales were exported, and yet of 11,502,000 above stated, 8,922,000 went from the Southern States of America, which at the same price, (8½ cts.,) is worth $227,511,000. So that in quantity the production of the South is as 8,922,000 to 11,502,000 and the value is as $227,511,000 to $293,301,000, and thus we see that we produce more than three-fourths in quantity and value of this great staple. If the unascertained quantity consumed in India and exported thence to China, which is inferior in staple to ours, is set off against the quantity of our cotton consumed in the United States, (which I have not added to the computation,) the result, it is believed, will not be varied.

Let us look at this question in another point of view. The crop of the United States in 1823, was only 509,158, and yet the crop of the year 1848–9 had reached, 2,728,596, more than five times as great in 1848 as it was in 1823, twenty-six years before. This was worth, at last year's price, (10 cents,) 81,871,000. Deducting 518,039 as the quantity consumed in the United States,

We have for exportation, 2,227,844 bales, which at 10 cents, (a low estimate,) is worth	$66,825,320
If to this be added the other domestic productions of the South	32,674,176
The whole value for southern exports for 1849, will be	$99,500,000
More than two-thirds of the whole domestic exports from the United States for that year, which was	$131,710,081
And more than three times as much as the whole domestic export from the North, for the same year, which was‡	$32,210,081

The remarkable fact is also shown that the domestic exports of the South, *exclusive of cotton, her great staple*, is $32,674,176, while all the exports from the North are $32,210,081, leaving the value of her cotton over and above. The fact that the North consumes less than one-fifth of our cotton, while four-fifths find so ready a market on our wharves, is significant of the *independence of the South*; and the North might well be reminded by her receiving *all her supply of raw material from us*, and sending it again to us in her manufactured goods, (even if less keen-sighted than our Northerners are reputed to be,) how dangerous is the policy of converting an ally into an enemy, and a *customer* into a *rival*.

THE BLESSINGS OF THE UNION.

We give this extract from the letter of the Hon. Wm. Grayson, Collector of Charleston, to Governor Seabrook, as showing the other side of the question; but we are bound to say, that Mr. Grayson, in many parts of his letter, surrenders every thing which has ever been considered worthy of contending

*Compiled from tables of Collman and Stolterfoht.

† The average is made from reports to the Prussian government by the Consul at Charleston.

‡ Reports of Secretary of Treasury.

for the South. It is ever thus that one extreme will engender the other:

"They ask us with astonishment, what is it you propose to destroy? Is it the confederacy which for sixty years has secured undisturbed internal peace to a continent—which has conferred unexampled prosperity on the people of North America—which has enlarged their limits from the Mississippi to the Pacific Ocean, and increased the number of their states from thirteen to thirty-one—which establishes in this immense region the same laws, gives it the same language and literature, imparts to it the blessings of unlimited free-trade, and unrestricted social intercourse, and enables it to carry on, in unbroken links, from state to state, every kind of internal improvement, by which that trade and intercourse may be made more profitable and easy? It is Union, which has imparted to the American people the strength and influence of a great nation. It is Union, which has made their voice potential among the strongest of the earth. It is by the Union only, that we are enabled to bid defiance to all foreign aggression from whatever quarter. Who are indifferent to the advantages of the commerce, or would lightly challenge the hostile fleets and armies of the United States? Shall we from this condition, reduce ourselves to that of separate and feeble communities? The fables of our childhood would rebuke our rashness, and teach us the strength of Union, and the weakness of dissension and separation.

"Let us reflect on these effects of the confederacy more minutely. To the Southern man—the advocate of free-trade—what can be more imposing than the condition of a great continent more than equal in extent to all Europe, enjoying within itself the most perfect freedom of trade and intercourse; no duties, no passports, no hindrance of any kind? Every man goes where he pleases; sells and buys what he pleases; establishes his household in any state of the thirty-one, with all the rights and privileges of the native citizen of each state, without any of the smallest interference of police, spy or custom-house regulations. Nothing like it exists, or ever has existed on earth. In Europe, you are stopped on the frontiers of every state. Your baggage must be rummaged, your passports *vised*. In every petty principality, you are exposed to the insolence and ignorance of the government officials. New duties on goods, new examinations of persons, new difficulties of every sort await you at every step. What a contrast this to the unrestrained liberty of intercourse? to the unlimited freedom of trade, which the confederacy, and the confederacy alone, secures to the American citizen throughout his immense country? And if these effects of the confederacy be admirable now, what will they be when the population and wealth of the country are increased a thousand-fold?"

In our next we shall furnish more quotations from the pamphlet of Mr. Grayson, and also from the very able answer to it which has been published, as well as from the oration by our friend William H. Trescot, entitled the "Position and Course of the South;" the pamphlet of Mr. Garnet, of Virginia; the comprehensive treatise "On Slavery, and Southern Rights and Remedies," by Edward B. Bryan, &c. We shall be impartial in presenting both sides, reserving our own opinion, and leaving the reader to form his. We take the following summary from the Essay of Thornton Stringfellow, entitled, "A Brief Examination of Scripture Testimony on the Institution of Slavery:"

THE BIBLE ARGUMENT FOR SLAVERY.

My reader will remember that the subject in dispute is, whether involuntary and hereditary slavery was ever lawful in the sight of God, the Bible being judge?

1. I have shown by the Bible that God decreed this relation between the posterity of Canaan and the posterity of Shem and Japheth.

2. I have shown that God executed this decree by aiding the posterity of Shem (at a time when "they were holiness to the Lord,") to enslave the posterity of Canaan in the days of Joshua.

3. I have shown that when God ratified the covenant of promise with Abraham, he recognized Abraham as the owner of slaves he had bought with his money of the stranger, and recorded his approbation of the relation, by commanding Abraham to circumcise them.

4. I have shown that when he took Abraham's posterity by the hand in Egypt, five hundred years afterwards, he publicly approbated the same relation, by permitting every slave they had bought with their money to eat the passover, while he refused the same privilege to their *hired servants*.

5. I have shown that God, as their national law-giver, ordained by express statute, that they should buy slaves of the nations around them, (the seven devoted nations excepted,) and that these slaves and their increase should be a perpetual inheritance to their children.

6. I have shown that God ordained slavery by law for their captives taken in war, while he guarantied a successful issue to their wars, so long as they obeyed him.

7. I have shown that when Jesus ordered his Gospel to be published through the world, the relation of master and slave existed by law in every province and family of the Roman Empire, as it had done in the Jewish commonwealth for fifteen hundred years.

8. I have shown that Jesus ordained, that the legislative authority, which created this

relation in that empire, should be obeyed and honored as an ordinance of God, as all governments are declared to be.

9. I have shown that Jesus has prescribed the mutual duties of this relation in this kingdom.

10. And lastly, I have shown, that in an attempt by his professed followers to disturb this relation in the Apostolic churches, Jesus orders that fellowship shall be disclaimed with all such disciples, as seditious persons—whose conduct was not only dangerous to the state, but destructive to the true character of the Gospel dispensation.

LATE BOOKS AND PERIODICALS.

1.—Europe, Past and Present.

A Comprehensive Manual of European Geography and History, with separate descriptions and statistics of each State, and a copious Index—by Francis H. Ungewitter, LL. D. New-York: Geo. P. Putnam. New-Orleans: J. B. Steel. 1850. The author of this admirable work has prepared several extensive geographical works which have been published in Germany. He has travelled extensively, and collected on the spot most of the information here embodied. Fifty-six European states are included, and the order of discussing them has been, firstly, area and population, surface, soil, natural products, manufactures, commerce and trade, public finances, form of government, strength of the army, and, with maritime states, of the navy; secondly, the history; and third, the topography of the state. We shall refer again to this volume, and meanwhile recommend it to our readers as a most invaluable work.

2.—White's Statistics of Georgia.

This volume we have elaborately reviewed in another place, and shall continue to notice.

3.—Grahamme, or Youth and Manhood.

By the author of "Talbot and Vernon." New-York: Baker & Scribner. We are indebted to Thomas L. White, 53 Canal street, for this interesting volume, which we have once before noticed. The author says, in his preface:

"To those who object to the character I have here drawn of Simon Bolivar, I have only to say, that this is the result of the best information I can get. I would be sorry to pull down, or to attempt to pull down, any hero rightfully enthroned; but every impostor, while he is believed, robs some true man of his due meed of praise."

Mr. White, we are gratified to state, has an assortment of valuable works on hand, of every kind, such as New-Orleans has seldom seen before.

4.—Historical Collections of Louisiana,

Embracing translations of many rare and valuable documents, relating to the natural, civil and political history of that State, compiled with historical and biographical notes, and an introduction by B. F. French, member of the Louisiana Historical Society, of the American Association for the advancement of Science, Honorary member of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, &c. &c. Part 2d. Philadelphia: Daniels & Smith. New-Orleans: B. M. Norman. 1850.

We have given the full title of this praiseworthy contribution of our fellow citizen, Mr. French, to the Historical literature of our State. Eighteen months ago the first part was published, containing many interesting documents bearing upon the early history of the State; and the 3d part will be soon put to press, should there be sufficient encouragement offered to the present issue, and will contain La Harpe's celebrated journal, translated, an account of Louisiana about 1760, an account of the Natchez war, &c. &c.

Part 2d contains:

1. An account of the Louisiana Historical Society; being a description of its origin and history, its constitution, members, proceedings, correspondences, &c., with some account of the researches by John Perkins in Europe, and by Senor Gayangos in Spain.
2. Judge Ballard on the death of Judge Martin.
3. Forstall's Digest of all the French papers in relation to Louisiana. This alone is worth many times the price of the book.
4. An original Letter of Hernando de Soto.
5. A recently discovered Manuscript in relation to De Soto.
6. A gentleman of Elvas' account of De Soto's Expedition.
7. Daniel Coxe's account of the Mississippi and Carolina.
8. Marquette and Joliet's Voyage.
9. A very ancient and curious Map of Louisiana.

Each of these parts of Mr. French's collections are distinct and independent volumes, and we trust that the small edition which has been printed of the 2d, will be immediately exhausted by orders from every portion of the State. The price is very reasonable, and the book may be had of Norman.

5.—The New-Orleans Book.

This is an elegant volume, illustrated and gilded, and admirably suited for presentation in the holiday times It contains extracts from the most distinguished writers of Louisiana, and a few copies yet remain at Steel's, Norman's, and at our office.

EDITOR'S NOTE.

We have received the following articles, but too late for insertion in the present number. They will have a prominent place in February:

1. *Diversity of the Human Race, by Dr. J. C. Nott, of Mobile.*—This elaborate paper, which reviews with a master-hand the late work by Dr. Bachman, of Charleston, upon the Unity of the Human Race, we regret cannot have a place in the present number. Few men in the country are so able to discuss this subject as Drs. Bachman, Morton, and Nott, and the world will be much indebted for their scientific labors. In regard to what we have previously published upon this subject from Dr. Nott, a distinguished gentleman of the West has lately written us:

"I am glad to see that you are bringing that important question, 'is the African and Caucasian of common origin?' before the public. Had it only been mooted ten years ago, and as well undersood as I am pursuaded it will be five years hence, much mischief and disadvantage to the South would have been avoided. Keep it up, I intreat you, and much good may be done."

2. *Butler's Review of the Spanish parties in the West.*—This is a reply by Dr. Monette, author of the History of the Valley of the Mississippi, to an attack made upon him last summer, through the pages of our Review, by Mann Butler, author of the History of Kentucky.

3. *Sketch of a Proposed Act of the Legislature of Louisiana,* in relation to guarding the Levees during the prevalence of high waters, by Alfred Stein, of Mobile.

4. *Supposititious Reviews,* by James W. Legare, Esq.—(*concluded.*)

5. *Bessemer's Patent Improvements in the Manufacture of Sugar, with engravings.*—This is an elaborate description of a patent, we will publish in our next, taken out last year in England, for a Cane Press of great power and efficiency, and of which we understand Messrs. Addison & Co., of this city, have been appointed agents. The following notice of it is taken in the London Standard:

INTERESTING TO SUGAR-PLANTERS.

"This morning a meeting took place at Baxter-House, Old St. Pancras-road, to witness an experiment, the result of Prince Albert's offer of a gold medal for the best improvement upon sugar-cane mills.

"The meeting consisted of a strong muster of planters from the West India Colonies, several distinguished scientific men, and a special deputation from the Society of Arts.

"It appears that the most improved mode hitherto used for expressing the juice from the sugar-cane is an arrangement of rollers worked by a steam-engine, through the former of which the sugar-canes pass, and the juice is abstracted, but from the porous nature of the cane fibre much of the juice is reabsorbed after the cane has passed through the rollers—the practical result being, that the most improved roller machines do not produce more than 55 per cent. of juice, whereas there is 90 per cent. in the cane, evidently leaving great room for improvement.

"The necessary preparations having been made, the engine was set to work and the first experiment made, which resulted in completely extracting the juice from 100 lbs. of sugar-cane in 63 seconds, which, by the way, was not an exhibition of the uttermost power of the engine, inasmuch as the fourth tube, being out of working order, could not be used; consequently, only three-fourths of the actual power was exhibited. The second experiment was to test the amount of juice the engine was capable of abstracting from a given amount of cane; this was also performed under somewhat disadvantageous circumstances, as the canes having been cut upwards of four months since, much of the juice had evaporated. Nevertheless, the lowest figures that could be placed upon the result were 65½ per cent.—that is to say, 65½ lbs. of juice was extracted from 100 lbs. of cane, leaving but little doubt but that, under more favorable circumstances, the new engine would realize 75 or 80 per cent., instead of the present average of 55, already mentioned—an improvement, when examined and entered into, of great magnitude and importance. Besides this, it was distinctly shown, that while the new mode of pressure abstracted so completely the juice of the interior of the cane, its knots and rind were left completely untouched—a most important advantage, as it is there that the green wax and other objectionable matters are contained; and it is there that the old roller machine unfortunately pressed—a difficulty insurmountable in the roller system, yet effectually obviated by the new process.

"The engine throughout was completely under control, and worked well; and the greatest interest and excitement was evinced in the experiment—one certainly of great importance both to the West India interest and to the public at large."

6. *Overflows of the Mississippi*—This is a proposal to obviate the dangers of crevasses by preventing the Arkansas and Red Rivers from overflowing the Mississippi at the time of the rise of that river. We hold it over to the next number.

Daniel Pratt

OF ALABAMA, MANUFACTURER.

Engraved by Illman & Sons expressly for De Bow's Review New Orleans.

Nº 2.

Printed by Butler & Jay

Gallery of Enter

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DE BOW'S

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ART. I.—DIVERSITY OF THE HUMAN RACE.*

POPE'S "Essay on Man" is justly regarded as a master-piece in its line; and in its preface he has remarked with much force, that "The science of human nature is, like all other sciences, reduced to a few clear points: there are not many certain truths in this world. It is therefore in the anatomy of the mind, as in that of the body: more good will accrue to mankind by attending to the large, open, and perceptible parts, than by studying too much such finer nerves and vessels, the conformations and uses of which will for ever escape our observation."

Now all this is true of man in the *abstract* as *he* has viewed him; but had we the genius of Pope,

> "To expatiate free o'er all this scene of man;
> A mighty maze! but not without a plan;
> A wild where weeds and flowers promiscuous shoot"—

we might show, that after passing over these "finer nerves and vessels," there is still an "ample field" of *Comparative Anatomy* of Nations and Races, the exploration of which will yield a no less rich and more varied harvest.

The more we study this "science of human nature," the more vast and complex does it become. Look back upon man's past history—around upon the "many-colored life" he now presents;—trace with

* *The Doctrine of the Unity of the Human Race, examined on the Principles of Science.* By JOHN BACHMAN, D. D., Prof. Nat. Hist. College of Charleston; Corresponding Member of the Zool. Soc.; Hon. Member of the Entomol. Soc., London; Corresponding Member Royal Botanical Soc., Saxony; Royal Soc. St. Petersburg; R. S. A. Copenhagen; Acad. Nat. Sciences., Philad.; N.Y. Lyceum; N. H. Soc., Boston, New-Haven and Toronto; National Institute; Am. Ass., &c. &c.

the mind's eye the thousand living streams which flow from all points towards futurity's great, fathomless ocean, and what a mighty chaos does human nature seem! Through chiliads of years nations have risen to grandeur, and sank to decay, in steady succession—each presents a distinct picture to the eye of the philosopher, and each seems to light the next "the way to dusty death;" and yet who can doubt—

> "That each may fill the circle mark'd by Heaven;
> Who sees with equal eye, as God of all,
> A hero perish or a sparrow fall;
> Atoms or systems into ruin hurl'd;
> And now a bubble burst, and now a world!"

It makes the brain dizzy to gaze fixedly upon this huge panorama, which flits along before us like a changing dream. We behold, too, great ebbs and floods in these tides of human affairs, which, though often incomprehensible to us, have their uses. Wars, pestilence, famine and dark ages come—they are followed by peace, commerce, power, empire, knowledge. Great men, great discoverers, and great events, must await the "fulness of time." Moses, Alexander, the Cæsars, Christ, Luther, Printing, Gunpowder, the Mariner's Compass, Columbus, Washington, Steam, the Mexican war, the California mines, &c., are but a few of the landmarks, great and small, which mark stages in human progress. There is a beautiful moral in the words of the Corn Law Rhymer:—

> "God no useless plant hath planted,
> Evil (wisely used) is wanted."

In times past, historians, in writing of the rise, progress, and decay of nations, have, like Pope, treated mankind as a *unit*—have attempted to unravel the machinery of this "mighty maze" by a few broad general principles, applicable to all, and have chalked out utopian systems of government, which should make *all* great, good and happy; but this delusion is now passing away, and a change is coming "over the spirit of our dream." Now we begin to talk of *races*—their physical and psychical peculiarities—their fitness for certain forms of government—their capacities for moral and intellectual culture—their true positions in the social scale, &c. These are not merely curious speculations, or results of scientific investigations; but they are questions forced upon us by outward and accumulating circumstances, which are *directing* the attention of science to new and unexplored fields. Races, since the discovery of the mariner's compass, have been brought into closer contact—have been more mixed up—have been compelled to study each other; and ethnological inquiries have been forced upon modern civilized nations—they have become a positive necessity.

The subject is not only full of difficulties, but full of *dèsagrèmens;* for we cannot make a step forward without coming in collision with bitter religious and political prejudices, and subjecting ourselves to most unjust imputations. The facts that the Asiatic and African races of men existed five thousand years ago, as distinct as they do now, and that no well authenticated example can be cited of the

transformation of one type into another, during this time, can be as clearly demonstrated as the revolution of the earth around the sun, the discoveries in geology, or the circulation of the blood; and yet, like these great discoveries, they must fight through our generation before they can be firmly established. But, thank heaven, we live in an age when men dare speak the truth, and that there are master minds at work, which will never sleep until the battle is won. The popular mind, too, is fully awake on this subject. The thirst for knowledge has become almost morbid, and nothing short of a thorough investigation will satisfy this want. However violent the storm may become, the discussion must be prosecuted. The issue might have been staved off for a time, at least, had theologians, some years back, put forward such a compromise as the "omnibus" of Dr. Bachman; but the time has passed. The Dr. says:

"The *fact* that nature has stamped on the African race the *permanent marks of inferiority*—that we are taught by their whole past history the lesson of *their incapacity for self-government*, and that the Scriptures point out the duties, both of masters and servants, should be sufficient to dispel every improper motive in an unbiassed search after truth alone," &c.

Here, it will be perceived, he fully admits the *practical fact* for which we have been contending, but denies that this *now* "permanent inferiority" of the negro is attributable to separate origin. It can be clearly shown that this position is untrue, and the world will be no longer satisfied with an *untruth* on this point.

Probably no scientific work ever published in the United States was looked for with more intense interest than the one of Dr. Bachman, under review. The *orthodox* regarded him as the Ajax who was to stem the torrent that was overwhelming them; and the advocates of the *diversity* of races, who were no less honest in search of truth, awaited with equal anxiety the advent of a book which they hoped would undeceive them, if they were in error. The new lights thrown on biblical criticism by European philologists and archæologists—the rapid progress of natural history and geology—the wonderful revelations drawn from the monuments of early nations in the old world, and even the imperfectly defined shadows of antiquity, now starting up from the ruins of extinct American races, &c., all seemed to combine in establishing distant origins for the races of men; and we were anxious to see how all these apparent truths were to be explained away. We can at least answer for ourselves, and declare honestly, that we awaited the arrival of this work with eager and pleasing anticipations, and were ready to confess our errors at the altar of truth, if we were wrong. It is certainly far more agreeable to go on through the world harmoniously, than to be engaged in a war against popular opinions, with the certainty before us of making bitter personal enemies. We, moreover, had been so wearied and disgusted with the senseless and illiberal ravings of sectarians, that when we saw announced the work of Dr. Bachman, we drew a long breath, and said to ourselves, we shall *now*, at least, have a fair, manly, liberal, Christian-like exposition of the opposite side of this

great question. Dr. Bachman, we knew, had grown gray in the study of natural history, and in teaching the beautiful precepts which Christ bequeathed us; and, as a full guaranty for his attainment and standing, held the honorable post of Professor of Natural History in Charleston College. These and kindred reflections, we say, caused us to take up this work with extraordinary hopes and expectations; and, though the acknowledgment is painful to us, we are constrained to say, that we have never, in the whole course of our lives, risen from the perusal of any work with such bitter feelings of mortification and disappointment—mortification, from its utter want of Christian charity and courtesy,* and disappointment, from its loose statements of facts, its endless assumptions, and entire want of rigid, scientific reasoning.

Really bad books are usually calculated to do harm; but this, though it may lead astray, for a time, many who read little and think less, is destined to do immense good. Its ill temper will destroy all its force, and drive opponents into the field who will readily expose its fallacies and sophistry. Morton and Agassiz, not to mention many others less known to fame, are already in the field; and we must do Dr. Bachman the justice to say, though *unintentionally*, he has contributed more than any one man in the country to the establishment of correct views on this great question.†

Dr. Bachman tells us: "The greatest naturalists in all ages, however diversified may have been their views in regard to Christianity, regarded all the races of men as composed of one species." Now to this we object, that it does not follow that all who contend that the races are of one *species*, contend also that they are all descended from *one pair;* nor are we sure that he is right in claiming all the distinguished names he has mentioned; while we are, on the other hand, certain he has omitted many equally distinguished who are opposed to his views, not to mention M. Agassiz and Dr. Morton, whom he has driven into open warfare. Even these, however, will cease to be "great naturalists," as soon as the Doctor finds in them opponents.‡

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* The high personal consideration and respect we entertain for Dr. Bachman, whose memory connects itself with our earliest years, makes it painful for us to publish these strictures of Dr. Nott; but the position of Editor will not warrant an undue interference in discussions which are prosecuted through our pages, and whose object is *truth*.—EDITOR.

† If the reader has kept pace with this discussion, he need not be told that the leading opinions of Dr. Nott, as published in his "Two Lectures on the Biblical and Physical History of Man," are openly maintained by Agassiz, Morton, and other leading men of the day; and yet Dr. Smyth has the modesty to speak of those lectures in the following terms: "Of this work, it is hard to say whether it is more confused and unscientific in its arrangements—more illogical and inconclusive in its reasoning—more self-contradictory and suicidal in its statements—more arrogant and dictatorial in its spirit—or more *mean and cowardly in its venomous hostility to the Bible.*" This is but a sample of the Rev. Dr. Smyth's *defence of Christianity;* and we are really at a loss which to admire most—his modesty, good breeding, or charity. His attack in the latter part of his book upon Agassiz, on a question of science, brings vividly to our recollection John Randolph's story of one who made an attack on the rock of Gibraltar with a pocket pistol. But we will leave the Dr. to the tender mercies of the *Democratic Review*.

‡ Mr. Prichard, whose reading was more extensive on this subject than any man who ever lived, is rather more modest in his claims than Dr. Bachman; *he* says that the weight of authority is decidedly in favor of "Original Diversity."—"If the elucidation of doubts

"And who," asks Dr. Bachman contemptuously, "are on the opposite side? Virey, who pronounced the negro 'undoubtedly a distinct species from the beginning of the world,' &c. Desmoulins divided men into eleven species; Borey into fifteen; and Broc into several subgenera, and an infinite number of species; and finally, an American, (Dr. Nott,) who can see no reason why we should not make 100 species of men. The Frenchmen belonged to a school of skeptics, of which Voltaire was at the head, and we may be allowed to suspect that their minds might have been biased by the cheerless doctrine which they had imbibed."*

"The American, who seems to have labored rather to deny the historical veracity of Scripture than to prove the diversity of the races, may, perhaps, claim the attention of the theologian; but having produced no new fact or argument to bear on the subject to which we are restricted in this purely scientific discussion, *he requires no further notice*. Be this as it may, the world of *science* has never admitted these gentlemen into their ranks as naturalists. *Their names are utterly unknown among them*;—not one of them, that we are aware of, has ever described a single animal."

Now this is most extraordinary language, which we should be utterly unable to account for, had not Dr. Bachman, in the opening of his book, page 16, told us, in plain English, that he was so afraid of "*being biased by authorities*," that he "*had recently read very few of the numerous works written on the subject*"!!!

But let us see who were these "utterly unknown names." They were, most assuredly, men of high reputation—authors of numerous well known works—large contributors to scientific journals, encyclopedias, &c. We happen to have in our library works by each of these authors; and for the instruction of Dr. Bachman, we will give a title-page from a book of each, which will show a display of titles almost equal to the modest one of our author.

"Histoire Naturelle du Genre Humain. Par J. J. Virey, Docteur en Médecine de la faculte de Paris; Membre Titulaire de l'Académie Royale de Médecine; Ancien Professeur d'Histoire Naturelle a l'Athenée Royale de Paris; Membre de Plusieurs Academies et Sociétés Françaises et etrangeres," &c.

"L'Homme, Essai Zoologique sur le Genre Humain, par M. Bory, de Saint Vincent, de l'Academie des Sciences, de l'Institut Royale de France," &c. &c.

"Essai sur les Races Humaines, considerées sous les rapports Anatomique et Philosophique, par P. P. Broc, Docteur en Médecine, Professeur d'Anatomie et de Physiologie," &c.

"Histoire Naturelle des Races Humaines: d'après des recherches

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on subjects of physical inquiry were to be sought for in preponderance of authorities or opinions of celebrated men, I am afraid that the problem which I have endeavored to investigate would receive a solution different from that I have obtained." Pref. Vol. I.—*Phys. Hist.*

* Though this is a fair specimen of the tone of all Dr. Bachman's writings on this subject, in his very last article (reply to Morton) he says, with great simplicity, "I perceive that some of the writers on your side of the question, are making bitter complaints of having been charged, by certain divines, of holding sentiments of infidelity. Of all this I am wholly ignorant, as I neither indulge in such epithets, nor read ephemeral papers that treat on these subjects." Any one who has perused Dr. Bachman's work will read this paragraph with surprise; for though he may not use epithets, his tone and meaning are no less plain and offensive.

spéciales d'Antiquités de Physiologie, d'Anatomie et de Zoologie, &c. &c. Par A. Desmoulins, auteur de l'Anatomie des Systemes Nerveux, Docteur en Médecine, &c.

On page 177 of Dr. Bachman's book will be found another blunder, quite as gross and as rudely put as the others. He quotes from some old papers of Dr. Caldwell, published in 1814, to prove him an advocate for unity of the races, and leaves the inference that *we had misrepresented* Dr. Caldwell. He seems never to have heard of Dr. Caldwell's powerful little work, "Thoughts on the Original Unity of the Human Race," New-York, 1830. It is one of the most triumphant refutations of Prichard's "Physical History" ever published. Truly has he remarked, that "the most dangerous enemies of religion are those persons who would make it an instrument to trammel the human intellect, and arrest the progress of human knowledge, by preventing free and general discussion." * * * * And that "If it be not wrong in the Deity to frame some species of men inferior to others, it cannot be wrong to declare and endeavor to prove it."—Page 5–6.

After the evidence we have given, and these are only a few specimens out of many, we feel assured that the reader will not think we transcend the bounds of propriety when we say, that our author has shown great want of candor, fairness, and charity, as well as want of information.

Let us now examine the claims of this work to the respect of the *scientific* world; and we must say in advance, that as might he expected, it bears too strongly the marks of a biassed and perverted judgment. If, instead of its present title, it had borne that of "Curiosities of Natural History," it would have been appropriate, and the work would have been received as a valuable contribution to science; it is full of curious and interesting facts, though we must in candor confess that we cannot help, after the remarks we have made, receiving with some misgivings those which the Dr. gives on his own responsibility; for, though perhaps unconsciously, he appears to see every thing through colored glasses.

Before we can make a single step forward in the elucidation of our subject, it is necessary that we should come to some understanding as to the definition of the term *Species*. It will be seen that the Dr. has manufactured one for his own convenience which does not accord with the notions of naturalists generally, but if granted, answers his purpose marvellously well—it enables him to cut facts out of his way just as he does opposing authorities. He says:

"*Species* we define as applying to those individuals resembling each other in dentition and general structure. In wild animals, as a general rule, they must approach the same size; but both in wild and domesticated animals they must have the same duration of life, the same period of utero-gestation, the same average number of progeny, the same habits and instincts; in a word, they belong to one stock that *produce fertile offspring by association*."

Here the author *assumes* the great point in dispute, viz. the *fertility* of offspring as a test of *identity of species* :—

"*Varieties*, (he tells us,) are those that are produced within the limits of a particular species, and have not existed from its first origin. They *sometimes* originate in *wild* species, especially those which have a wide geographical range, and are thus exposed to change of temperature, climate, &c. But they *always* occur in animals which have been subjected to domestication."—Pp. 19—20.

The Dr. himself tells us that "*Prichard* is justly regarded as one of our best authorities;" and we shall content ourselves by quoting Prichard's definition, though we could easily show that his opinion is substantially that of naturalists generally :—

"The meaning attached to the term *Species* in natural history is very definite and intelligible. It includes *only* the following conditions, namely, *separate origin and distinctness of race, evinced by a constant transmission of some characteristic peculiarity of organization.* A race of animals or of plants marked by any peculiar character which it has ever constantly displayed, is termed a species; and two races are considered specifically different, if they are distinguished from each other by some characteristic which the one cannot be supposed to have acquired or the other to have lost, through any known operation of physical causes; for we are hence led to conclude, that tribes thus distinguished have not descended from the same original stock."

"This is the purport of the word *species*, as it has long been understood by writers on different departments of natural history. They agree essentially as to the sense which they appropriate to this term, though they have expressed themselves differently according as they have blended more or less of *hypothesis* with their conceptions of its meaning."

"*Varieties*, in natural history, are such diversities in individuals and their progeny, as are *observed to take place* within the limits of species."

"*Permanent Varieties* are those which, having once taken place, continue to be propagated in the breed in perpetuity. The *fact* of their origination *must be known by observation or inference*, since the proof of this fact being defective, it is more philosophical to consider characters which are perpetually inherited as *specific* or *original*. The term *permanent variety* would otherwise express the *meaning which properly belongs to species*. The properties of species are two: viz., original difference of characters and the *perpetuity of their transmission*, of which only the latter can belong to permanent varieties."

"The instances are so many in which it is doubtful whether a particular tribe is to be considered as a distinct species, or only as a variety of some other tribe, that it has been found by naturalists convenient to have a designation applicable in either case."—See *Phys. Hist.*, p. 105., vol. ii.

Nothing can be more clear, more explicit, and more true, than this language of Prichard; and it not only proves that Bachman's definition is a gratuitous assumption, but might be taken as a satisfactory answer to his whole argument.

Prichard laid down fair and honest premises, though, as we con-

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Note. We assert, without the fear of contradiction, that Prichard does not establish a single example of change of type in a race of men, while he cites many examples of permanence of type in the most opposite climates.

ceive, made many capital errors in his argument, from the fact of his being behind the knowledge of our day, and biased by early opinions. He was engaged on this subject more than forty years, and lived to abandon, substantially, the authority of Genesis on this subject, and would have been compelled to abandon the unity of races, had he lived to see the present teachings of Egyptian monuments. If races have been *permanent* for 4,000 years, as is now proven, and we have no evidence during this time of the origin of new types, it follows, according to Prichard's own definitions, that the white and black races, at least, are distinct *species*.

Though Prichard is an advocate of unity of races, and inclined to agree with the opinion of Bachman, that hybridity is a *test* of species, yet he does not cram the conclusion down as a *fixed fact*, and expresses himself in the following modest language:

"It must be allowed that the exceptions to the *supposed law* of nature, rendering sterile all hybrid productions, are very numerous; and that when they are stated collectively, in the manner in which this has been done by Rudolphi, they have a most imposing appearance, and are well calculated to excite our doubt as to the soundness of the general conclusion to which so many particular facts are opposed," &c.—Page 138, vol. ii.

Not only is Dr. Bachman marvellously well satisfied with his newly invented *definition* of species, but he speaks with a degree of confidence of the ability of naturalists to *distinguish* species from each other, which must be quite refreshing to such men as Morton, Pickering, Agassiz, &c.

"We ascertained," (says the Dr.) "that in botany, ornithology, and mammalogy, the characters by which they could be known, as genera and species, were very uniform in all species that had not been subjected to culture or domestication, and had not been removed from their natural soil and climate. So plain, striking and permanent, indeed, are these characters, that a naturalist of common sagacity could not fail to fix the species in any country, even from prepared specimens." * * * * "We contend that naturalists can be found, both in Europe and America, who, without any vain boast, can distinguish *every species* of bird and quadruped on their separate continents, and that the characters which distinguish and separate the several species are *as distinct and infallible* as are those which form the genera," &c.—Pp. 9-10.

The passages before quoted from Prichard are alone sufficient to show how utterly untenable are these assertions; but we have at command even better opposing authority than that of Prichard, viz., the language of Dr. Bachman himself.

It is still a dispute amongst naturalists, all over the world, whether all the varieties of each of our domestic animals are of one or more species. Many contend that our horses, cattle, sheep, goats, dogs, &c., have each several species. Dr. Bachman tells us that when he was in Europe, he and certain *savans* settled this dispute very satisfactorily to themselves, with the *exception* of the dog and wolf. Admitting that there is in the animal kingdom but a single exception,

this is quite sufficient for our purpose. There can be no law assigned why the genus *homo* should not stand on the same platform with the genus *canis*, as far as the determination of *species*. Some naturalists think that dogs are all derived from *one* original pair; others think they are not. Some think they are derived from the wolf; others that they are mixtures of wolf, fox, jackal, &c., &c. In short, the diversity of opinion amongst our best authorities, proves that we are as yet in utter ignorance about the origin of the dog. The Dr. tells us, as the result of the labors of himself and the other *savans*, that "the domesticated dog was the only animal whose origin *we could not trace* in such a manner as to enable us to express a unanimous sentiment—some supposing his origin to be that of *canis anthus*, if, indeed, that is not a mere variety, grown wild in Abyssinia; the majority, however, inclining to the belief that he was a descendant of the common wolf!" The reader will no doubt be a little astonished at such an admission, after telling us that "the characters which distinguish and separate the several species are as distinct and infallible as are those which form the genera."—Pp. 10–12.

There are no certain criteria by which Dr. Bachman can decide that all the *large* wolves are derived from one source; nor could he decide, from "prepared specimens," that these and the *prairie* wolves are of one species. Speaking of the dog, he says: "Whilst he bears a very strong similarity to the wolf, there are, it must be admitted, some peculiarities by which he appears to be separated. The eye of the dog, in all its varieties, has a circular pupil, but in the wolf the position of the pupil is oblique. There is also a dissimilarity in the curve of the tail. There is, moreover, a difference in the voice, which has always enabled us, even in the forest, at night, to distinguish between the howl of the wolf and the barking of the dog. We have also observed that the wolf, although thoroughly tamed, did not evidence all the ductile traits of the dog," &c.—P. 62–63.

* * * "Notwithstanding all these difficulties,—and we confess we are not free from some doubts in regard to their identity,—if we were called upon to decide on any wild species as the progenitor of our dogs, we would, from the similarity in the conformation of the two, sooner fix upon the large wolf than on any other dog, hyena, or jackal; and certainly sooner on him than on any supposed mixture of all these species combined."—Pp. 63–64.

The Doctor's test of *hybridity* does not settle the question. He does not contend that domestication can change *specific* characters; and we may be permitted here to ask what becomes of his argument of unity of races in man, based on *analogies* from the animal kingdom? He tells us, with a flourish of trumpets, that the discussion is to be conducted entirely in accordance with the "principles of science," but every now and then the principles give out, and he has to *guess* his way through.

It is clear, then, that but little capital can be made by our author out of the arguments already alluded to; and we propose now to make a passing critique on his stronghold. Our friend, Dr. Morton,

is now at work on this point, and we may safely leave the matter in his more able hands.

Our author lays down the following bold and unqualified propositions: "Since no two species of animals have ever been known to produce a prolific hybrid race, therefore hybridity is a *test of specific character*. Consequently, the fact that all the races of mankind produce with each other fertile progeny, by which means new varieties have been produced in every country, constitutes one of the most powerful and undeniable arguments in favor of the unity of the races."—P. 119.

He here *assumes* two points, both of which are in dispute, and gives no proof of his assumptions; first, that hybridity *is* a test of specific character; and second, that all races of men produce prolific offspring, in the fullest sense of the term. But let the Dr. speak for himself more fully:

"The following are our views in regard to hybridity:

"1. There is, in addition to the difficulties presented by the difference of physical organization to an association of different species, a natural repugnance to that association; hence, in most cases, such an association is only produced by artificial means, by art, or constraint.

"2. That in nineteen out of twenty cases—and, we might add, ninety-nine out of a hundred—where hybrids have been produced between two species, however closely or remotely allied, they have proved sterile.

"3. In a very few cases, as in the mule of Virginia, and one or two others, where *hybrids have produced*, the progeny was feeble or deformed, and soon died.

"4. That in a very few species a *progeny has been produced* that was incapable of propagating with the half-breeds; in other words, that the hybrid male was physically incapable of having offspring with a hybrid female; hence, the latter had to resort to the full blood of either species, and thus the intermediate breed returned again to one or the other of the original species.

"5. That in two or three species a progeny has been produced where the *hybrids were fertile for a few generations*, and then became sterile. We have no evidence on record, on which undoubted reliance can be placed, that any intermediate race has been produced and perpetuated by the admixture of two species, of either quadrupeds or birds."

Now, we beg the reader to bear in mind, that on this test of hybridity for distinguishing species, hangs the main argument of Dr. Bachman; and then peruse carefully, and weigh well, these conclusions, to which his long labors have brought him. It is needless for us to follow him through the tedious meanderings by which he has arrived at these five propositions. The result is all we ask, and it is all that many advocates for the diversity of species in the human races have ever contended for. He lays down a regular sliding scale of prolificacy, which, according to *his* notions, stops short at a certain point; but he is unable to lay down any law on the subject. Let us suppose that a number of different species are presented to him. Can he lay down any rule by which he can determine the *degree* of prolificacy of any two, when brought together? No; he pretends to

no such skill. Some will not copulate; some do, and produce *unprolific* offspring; some produce offspring *prolific* with the parent stock only; and lastly, others produce offspring which are prolific for a few generations, and then run out! Why, let us ask, may another link not exist? Does it not seem most natural that it *should* exist? And if all the races of men *are* equally prolific together, it *does* exist, for we can have no surer test of species than *permanence* of type; and the white and black races have existed for 5,000 years, without any evidence of the transformation of one into the other. We will not go back to quadrupeds for an argument, though the Doctor's admissions in relation to *canines* show that he has even here no test on which he can rely.

Had our author simply given his laborious accumulation of facts on hybridity (*without his deductions*) as a contribution to science, they would have done him much credit, and been most cordially received by all; but so far from agreeing with his conclusions, we certainly should not ask a more powerful array of facts to establish the opposite conclusion. Gradation would seem to be a general law of nature; and why Dr. Bachman should, with so much apparent confidence, after passing through his degrees of hybridity, thus erect an abrupt barrier, we cannot understand. Certainly the animal kingdom has afforded him no proof of his position, while the sculptured and mummied heads of Egypt speak volumes against him.

It is clear that our author has not advanced his doctrine of unity by his test of hybridity. To say the least, he has left the question where he found it, and we think he has lost ground, as he has failed to make what *he* considered an important point, and what really *is* so. Let us now see whether he can make any more capital out of the threadbare argument from *analogues*.

After a rather egotistical enumeration of the labors of himself and certain other distinguished naturalists in Europe, the Dr. remarks: "The conclusions to which our minds were brought by these investigations, amounted to a conviction in regard to the following facts: that all quadrupeds, birds, and plants, when in a state of domestication or cultivation, were subject to most remarkable changes, and that these varieties *seldom* occurred, unless they were removed to other soils, latitudes, &c."—P. 13.

The reader will do well to bear in mind that every one of the Doctor's convenient general rules on hybridity, effects of domestication, influences of climate, &c., is qualified by some such term as "*seldom*," "*generally*," &c., which destroys its whole force; for there is no reason why man should not form an exception, as well as any animal, plant or bird. Our author goes on to illustrate the natural history of mankind by their analogues, Irish potatoes, cabbages, beets, carrots, cotton; next, birds, as common fowls, pea fowls, Guinea hens, geese, turkeys, ducks, pigeons, &c., all of which, he tells us, have departed widely from the type of their original stocks. "Quadrupeds, in a state of domestication, present still greater varieties. In their native wilds they have *generally* remained unchanged, but when removed to other lands, they have produced the most

striking varieties, producing breeds that have become permanent, and would remain so," &c. &c. He tells us also that these varieties would never revert to their original type, if carried back to their original locality; but how he ascertained this interesting fact, we are not informed.

And strange to say, in the succeeding paragraph, forgetting his "*seldom*" and "*generally*," he makes this sweeping assertion: "Such is the *uniform* process of nature, in every one of her departments. There is not a solitary exception to this law, which, although it cannot be fully explained by any process of human reasoning, is established by the best of all arguments—the naked and undisguised facts," &c.—P. 14.

Then, by an easy transition:

"Regarding man as a domestic animal, an inhabitant of every land and every climate where he can breathe the air of heaven and find food to sustain life, he must be subjected, in our examination of the various races, of every color and structure of skull, to the same laws by which we investigate the other departments of nature, under similar circumstances," &c.—P. 17.*

Again he says: "To our mind the field of argument may be much narrowed down by the examination of a single point, viz: what are true *species*, and what must be regarded only as varieties? We admit that in man, as well as in all other domesticated animals, there *is some difficulty* in deciding on those true characters which distinguish a species from a variety."—P. 18.

Here he admits the difficulty, and brings man back to the test which we have already seen has failed. In the dog and wolf, and in many other instances, he is without a guide, and his opinions are not shared by Agassiz, Morton, and others of more reputation than himself.

Now, although we may freely admit that man is an *animal*, and subject to be influenced by physical causes, yet we deny in broad terms that one animal can be taken as an analogue for another; each one has physiological laws peculiar to itself, and each is peculiarly affected by external causes; nor can Dr. B. lay down any law by which he can estimate the influence of domestication, climate, &c. on any animal, until the test of experience is applied.

"We find (says our author) that those animals, birds, grains, and vegetables, which were at the earliest periods subjected to domestication or cultivation, have undergone changes in form and color, which, although from their differences of conformation, are not *always similar in their operations*, have varied as widely from their original forms as have the varieties of men. As their organic structure, however, was different from the corres-

* It is true, that *man* is an "inhabitant of every land and every climate;" but can the negro live in the Arctic, or the northern races in the tropic of Africa? Let history answer the question. Two thousand years have done nothing towards acclimating the population of Italy against the noxious vapors of the Pontine marshes, and we have no reason to suppose that any but blacks can multiply in certain parts of Africa, where they have been living for 5,000 years. (*See Lepsius.*)

ponding portions in man, hence changes of climate would produce *different phenomena or different species.*"

"Still in all the species these phenomena have in various ways been exhibited. The cattle on the mountains of Hungary, Bohemia, Switzerland, Wales, and Scotland, have assumed different forms and colors from those in the valleys; on the mountains they are generally black, in the valleys brown, and those of the marshy downs white, or spotted on a large side. In four widely separated localities, Greece, Hungary, Bavaria and Missouri, where the hog with a solid hoof has sprung up, it appears to have multiplied most, and the other races gradually diminished. The wild hog from the forests of Germany, when domesticated in England, produced the immense breeds of Suffolk, Hampshire, Essex, and Berkshire hogs: when the same animal was domesticated in China and the East Indies, it produced a small black breed, and in Africa a variety with legs so short that its belly trails on the ground."

He thus goes on with sheep, goats, horses, dogs, wolves, squirrels, skunks, &c. &c., to show how animals change.

Why is it, that on the other hand, amongst the domestic animals and fowls, the ass, the camel, the sheep, the pea fowl, the Guinea fowl, the green-head duck, &c., should be so much *less liable* to change of color, and several of them to no less change of form? Why is it, amongst the wild animals, that the wolf, the fox, the squirrel, &c., always change with climate, and that the beaver, the weasel, the opossum, &c., though widely dispersed, do *not* change at all?

Where, let us ask Dr. Bachman, is the analogue for man? While we see animals changing under our eyes every day, can he point to a single well-marked example of a new race of men being formed? Have they changed their type, color, &c., while their pigs, horses, and dogs, were changing around them? Have the whites or blacks in the United States, in any instance, approached the type of aborigines? Have the Jews, any where on the face of the earth, changed their type? Have the Jews not lived in India 1,500 years without losing their type?* Have our domestic animals ever changed countries *with-*

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* Dr. Bachman ridicules M. Agassiz for his "meagreness" of facts in proof of different points of creation for the same species. Can anything be more meagre than *his* facts to prove the origin of new races? He tells us of a few *spotted* Mexicans, &c., but where is the *country* inhabited by well-marked races like the Negro, Indian, Mongol, &c., and whose population is *known* to have sprung from a different and unadulterated stock? Does history afford such an example, while it points to races which have been permanent through ages, and through all climates?

When preparing our article for July number, 1850, of the Southern Quarterly, we wrote for information to Dr. M. J. Raphall, the distinguished lecturer on Hebrew poetry and literature. His obliging reply did not reach us in time for that article, but his testimony on this important point in the history of his scattered race is too important to be lost, and we here give what he says about the ancient Jews of Malabar. His testimony confirms that of every authority we have seen. The Jews here, as elsewhere in hot climates, and as other white races, are tanned and somewhat darkened in the exposed parts of their bodies, but have preserved their type.

"The black Jews of Malabar are not descendants of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob, but are of *Hindoo origin.* At Cochin there are two distinct communities of Jews; one white, was originally settled at Cranganor, but when the Portuguese became powerful on that coast (A. D. 1500 to 1590) removed to Cochin. These Jews have been residents in India considerably above 1000 years, but still retain their Jewish cast of features, and though of dark complexion, are not black. They never intermarry with the second community, also Jews, but black, of Hindoo origin, and according to tradition, originally bondmen, but converted

out changing type? What becomes of the argument from analogues in the face of all these difficulties?

"Whilst we are willing to allow (says Dr. B.) some weight to the arguments advanced by President Smyth, who endeavors to account for the varieties in man from the combined influences of three causes:—'Climate, the state of society, and manner of living,'—we are free to admit that it is impossible to account for the varieties in the human family from the causes which he has assigned."—P. 177.

If this paragraph leaves any remaining ground-work for his argument from analogues, we confess we are unable to find it.

But let us indulge our ingenious author in one more extract, which we think caps the climax.

"The races of men, we are told by our opponents, have existed from very early times, as is testified by ancient mummies, and by the earliest records in profane history. There is, however, a still earlier record that we might, on the same ground, produce as historical evidence, of at least equal importance. They must admit that there was a long interval of time from the creation of men and animals before we received one line in regard to the forms or colors of these various races," &c. * * * "It is then on this *blank leaf* in ancient history, that from the researches in more modern times, and the analogies we are permitted to draw, we are now enabled to record our views in regard to the changes in men and animals, which occurred in their first migrations to new and uncultivated regions."

"The *supposition* is neither unreasonable nor unscientific, that the constitutions of men were so organized that in those early times, *before the races had become permanent*, they were more susceptible of producing varieties than at a later period, after their constitutions had attained to the full measure of its development, beyond which, at every step, there would be a greater difficulty either in advancing or returning; hence, the several races would, in a very short time, have become established. We can set no bounds to the power and wisdom of the Creator," &c.

Though fully aware that our author had no stable grounds on which he could base an argument, we confess that we were not prepared for such a surrender as this; and after professing to treat the subject solely "*on the principles of science*," this conclusion to his long and tedious journey, must be not a little mortifying even to himself. All his analogues are laid aside—all the teachings of science are forgotten. He acknowledges that the varieties of men existed as far back as Egyptian "mummies and the earliest records of profane history" can go, and dates his "permanent varieties from a blank leaf in ancient history." When we call to mind, too, that the chronological researches of Humboldt, Lepsius, Bunsen, &c., place these per-

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and manumitted some 300 years ago. Though of the same religion, the two races are, and keep distinct. In the interior of Africa many negroes are found who profess to be Jews, practice circumcision, and keep the Sabbath. These are held to be the descendants of slaves who were converted by their Jewish masters, and then manumitted. All the Jews in the interior of Africa who are of really Jewish descent, as for instance in Timbuctoo, the Desert of Sahara, &c., though of dark complexion, are not black, and retain the characteristic cast of features of their race.—So they do likewise in China."

"Yours, &c.,
"M. J. RAPHALL."

manent varieties at least 5,000 years before Christ, and not less than 2,000 years before the date of the flood, as made out from Genesis, we may be allowed to call in question the Doctor's explanation of the origin of the races of men, which he must acknowledge is based simply on a conjecture.

Permanance of type has always been considered as one of the best tests for distinguishing species; and if the types of the white, black, and other races, have remained unchanged and unchangeable through 7,000 years, it would really seem as if the *scientific* argument could ask no more.

We are really incapable of comprehending the intellectual character of such theological naturalists as Dr. Bachman. Guided, we presume, by a kind of inspiration, they possess the rare faculty of cutting out certain portions of the Bible which stand in their way, and then not only reconcile their own consciences to the mutilation, but with perfect confidence damn all those who dare doubt the historical accuracy of another portion. By far the strongest portion of our author's work, is his Chap. XVII., in reply to Agassiz, on the origin of the same species in different centres. And if there is in print a more palpable attack on the Book of Genesis, we do not know where to look for it. Is there anything in this book more clearly and distinctly taught than the universality of the deluge, and the origin of all present living beings, from the "seed preserved in Noah's Ark, and from one common centre?" Yet Dr. Bachman tells us, that there were *innumerable* centres of creation—that there is not a plant, not an animal, not a bird, not a fish, not a reptile common to the old and new continents, and that where the same species is found on each, the appparent exceptions can be explained by migrations, transportations, &c. This position is indispensable to his argument in favor of a common origin for man, and is managed with much adroitness, though if true, would be an inconclusive argument. We shall say no more on this head than to refer the reader to the unanswerable essays of Professor Agassiz, in the Boston "Christian Examiner," March and July, 1850, on the "Geographical Distribution of Animals."

Nor do we deem it worth while to touch his comparison of the *brains* of the different races of men: his remarks are founded on the researches of Prof. Tiedemann, which are now repudiated by Agassiz and Morton; and as both these gentlemen are now at work on this point, we may confidently leave it in their hands. Dr. Bachman himself admits that the negro is a *permanent* variety, has a permanently inferior intellect, and we need not waste time in arguing with him about the comparative *size* of crania. If the intellect is permanent, there must be *something* permanent in the physical structure of the brain.

The Dr. after, in his elaborate review of Dr. Morton, on this point, having travelled over a great part of the flora and fauna of our globe, and having satisfied every reasoning mind, from his own contradictory deductions, that there is no fixed law respecting the degree of fertility of different species when associated, thus coolly opens Chap. IV.:

"We have now, by the slow process of careful analysis, and with all the knowledge and experience which we could bring to our aid, examined all the cases of hybridity that seem to require our notice in the paper of Dr. Morton." * * * "If we have taxed the patience of our readers by entering into details on subjects with which the majority of them are not expected to be familiar, we crave their indulgence, as the establishment of this point is one of the strong weapons we intend to wield in defence of our theory, in regard to the unity of the races, and if possible in demolishing that of our opponents. They are fully aware of the long established and undeniable fact, that all the races of men, in every age and in every country, produce prolific offspring in their association with each other."

Here our author takes one assumption to prove another—both points are denied; and to sustain his position with regard to the whites and negroes, he makes the following statement:—"The facts are undeniable, that all these half breeds are prolific with each other, and we can point out at least the descendants of *five* generations, both in Carolina and New-York, where there has been *no intermixture with either of the original varieties;* and they are to this day as prolific as any of the other races of men!!"

Now we would ask, soberly and honestly, if there is a man south of the Potomac who believes this statement?—Did any man ever hear of, or even think it possible, that there could be in this country *five generations of virtuous mulattoes?* Our minds have been upon this subject for twenty years, and our observations have led us to the opinion, that the cross of the pure white stock (by which we mean the descendants of the ancient Germans) and the negro, does not, when kept separate, produce an indefinitely prolific variety, at least in the Atlantic and North Western States, at a distance from the tropics or native latitude of the negro. We have been actively engaged in the practice of medicine in Mobile for 14 years in a population of about 20,000 whites and blacks, and have been, during this time, using our best endeavors to collect statistics on this point which would be satisfactory to others, but have found the undertaking utterly impracticable on account of the undeniable want of virtue amongst the females of this class. We might, however, have exhibited some very handsome tables by this time, had we been blessed with the credulity of Dr. Bachman.

We are at a loss to comprehend the Doctor's notion about *chronology.* In one place, he says: "It must be observed, it was not necessary to hurry these races (of men) into existence at an earlier day than that in which the different varieties progressively appeared, and peopled the world. God may have created the first progenitors of our race *millions of ages* earlier than the time when they actually appeared"! &c.—P. 37.

Again:

"Nor do we conceive it necessary to do more than barely notice the hints that have recently been thrown out by our opponents, that the work of Lepsius, now in the course of publication, may affect our generally received views of chronology. It will be the safest mode for all parties to suspend their arguments, till the result of Lepsius's researches are laid be-

fore the public." * * * "Besides, it must be very evident, that if it could be proved from Champollion, Bunsen, or Lepsius, (which, from the lights before us, they are incapable of doing,) that the races of men existed ages prior to the period assigned by our present chronology, it would in nowise affect the doctrine of the unity of the human race."—P. 286.

These researches are now actually "before the public;" and Lepsius, from overwhelming evidences, drawn not only from the pyramids and other large monuments, but from a vast number of disinterred inscriptions, taken from more than a hundred private tombs, scattered around, informs us confidently, that Egypt existed *as a nation* 5,000 years before our era! Nor is he solitary in this opinion; but Bunsen, Birch, Hinks, Lesseur, and even Dr. B.'s great authority, Humboldt, have endorsed it.

Now, we repeat, that we should like to know something of the Doctor's opinions on this subject. He has already repudiated the account of the origin and dispersion of animals given in Genesis, and it would seem here that he is now repudiating its chronology, which involves, with it, the whole history of the Adamic race. Nor are we less surprised, when we bear in mind that he is examining the question "purely on scientific principles," that the Doctor should assert that "if it could be proved that the races of men existed ages prior to the period assigned by our present chronology, it would in nowise affect the doctrine of the unity of the human race." We cannot but believe the Doctor would find few naturalists, or even divines, to share this opinion. "Our present chronology," he must admit, goes back at least 5,000 years; and it must be conceded that races which have been *permanent*—unchanged under every variety of climatic influence, for so many thousand years, must be beyond the reach of internal causes, and should therefore be regarded as distinct species.

Dr. B. quotes with much triumph the opinions of Humboldt, "who has perpetuated no doctrines that are opposed to the laws of nature—that are injurious to morals, or subversive of Christianity;" and while we acknowledge that Humboldt does express a belief in the unity of races, and concur most cordially in all the praises which have, or can be, lavished on this great philosopher, we think we are justified in saying, that Humboldt's authority on this particular question is of little value. He does not, that we are aware of, pretend to have made any *original* investigations on the natural history of man, and bases his opinions on the labors of Vrolik, Weber, Tiedemann, and Prichard. The works of the two first we have never seen, but they are certainly not received, at the present day, as remarkable authorities. As to Tiedemann, he was the preceptor of Agassiz, who is greatly his superior, and who now openly repudiates his researches. Dr. Morton also has reviewed his labors on the brain, and, as we think, conclusively refuted his conclusions. As for Prichard's ponderous work, it is full of false facts and false conclusions, many of which Dr. Bachman himself dissents from.* We may mention, as one of

* Another prominent error of Prichard, (endorsed by Bachman, and repeated almost daily by his partisans,) is, his statements with regard to the Cherokee and Choctaw In-

Prichard's capital errors, his belief in the transformation of white Jews into dark Hindoos, in Malabar—an error which we have fully exposed in the July No., 1850, of the Southern Quarterly, and it would be no difficult task to point out one hundred others just as glaring. Nor will our author deny that Humboldt endorses fully the opinions of Lepsius as to the high antiquity of Egypt, and the diversity of races shown from the monuments, 3,000 years B. C. The Doctor is, therefore, welcome to all the capital he can make out of Humboldt's works.

We have thus given a few illustrations of the unfair and illiberal spirit which characterizes this book, and have laid bare a few of its most prominent scientific errors. Our labor has not been one, we imagine, which will afford any gratification to the reader; and as for ourselves, we can say, it has been performed as a tedious and painful duty. We sincerely hope that when the author appears again in print, he will mend his ways, and bear in mind the dignity which belongs to science, and which becomes the honorable position which he holds. Such passages as the following, (and the work is full of them,) even if he had achieved all he has so vainly attempted, is unbecoming in a Professor of Natural History, and still more in the pastor of a Christian church:

"Thus far we have acted on the defensive. We have met and grappled with our opponents, in all the points in which they conjectured our citadel was weak and unguarded, and where they imagined their success was attainable. We have traced their *stratagems and manœuvres*, and listened to their shouts of fancied victory, but our castle still remains unshaken, and they have not succeeded in removing even one picket that guards the outposts of our strong fortress. We may now be permitted to assail them in turn, and carry the war into their own camp," &c.

We could almost see, in our disturbed imagination, the *giant* trampling on the mangled corses of Agassiz, Morton, and a host of such *pigmies!*

But let us pause from our long and painful wandering, and take an observation, in order to ascertain our latitude and longitude. We shall simply and succinctly recapitulate a few of the principal reasons on which we base our belief in the unity of the human races, and ask the reader to review, calmly and dispassionately, the work of Dr. Bachman, and ask himself if he has advanced any proofs that can invalidate a single one of our positions.

1*st*. *Permanence* of type, under all climatic influences, is regarded by naturalists as satisfactory evidence of distinctness of origin.

2*d*. The monuments of Egypt, it is conceded, prove clearly that the Asiatic and African races were as distinct 5,000 years ago as they

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dians. We have shown, several times, from incontestible evidence, that this pretended civilization is confined exclusively to the mixed breeds, and to the whites settled amongst them.

are now. No well authenticated case exists on record of the transformation of one type, as the white, black, Mongol, Indian, Malay, &c., into another, while we have numerous instances of races preserving their types through ages, when removed to the most opposite climates: for example, the Jews in Malabar for 1500 years, and for centuries in other countries; the Gipseys for 400 years in all climates; the Arabs; the Parsees; the Magyars in Hungary; the whites and blacks for many generations in America, &c. &c. External causes change races greatly, but these changes stop far short of distinct types.

3d. According to Dr. Bachman's own admissions, hybridity cannot be received as a test for species. He lays down a sliding scale of prolificacy between species, without being able to assign a reason for its abrupt limitation, or giving any proof that such a limit exists.

4th. Even were the Dr. able to prove that all the races belonged to one species, (as he understands the term,) it would not mend his argument; for if, as we contend, the types of men are permanent under all physical agencies, their prolificacy, when associated, would only prove the position taken by Agassiz, Morton and others, that varieties of the same species have been created in distant centres.

5th. The account given in the book of Genesis * of the Adamic stock, cannot be received as an account of *all* the races then on the earth: because Cain must have got his wife from another race; because large cities are spoken of only in the third and fourth generations, before population of this stock existed to build them; because the chronology taught in Genesis is too plain for doubt, and we now know positively that Egypt, and China, and probably other nations, existed with large populations and regular governments 5,000 years before Christ, and at least 2,000 years before any date which can be fixed for the flood and the dispersion of Noah's family; because the writers not only of the Old, but of the New Testament, knew nothing of many distant countries which were, in their day, densely populated

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* One cannot but be amused at the cool effrontery with which the Dr. kicks his opponents out of "Sunday School" for treating Genesis as *he* does.—"Hitherto, the believers in the plurality of species in men finding it impossible to escape the *plain teachings* of the Old and New Testaments, have either, like Voltaire and the host of open infidels, treated the Scriptures as a tissue of falsehoods and absurdities, or like the skeptics of another school, have regarded the historical parts as uninspired, and therefore as of no authority," &c. * * "We discover a most remarkable diversity in sentiment among those who advocate the same theory."—One would really suppose, from the Dr's account, that the theologians all read the Bible in the same way, and were as amiable and harmonious as "sucking doves."

The Dr. dodges the *plain teachings* of the Bible in chronology, but denies boldly that the deluge was universal, that there was but one centre of creation, and that all the animals, &c. came from the Ark, and asserts that his opinions have been prevalent among learned divines for the last half century!"—On the other hand, we have just been severely handled by Dr. Hamilton in Mobile for holding opposite opinions. Dr. H. too, is right, for the *plain teaching* of Genesis is opposed to Dr. Bachman, and we deny its *historical* accuracy. If the flood was not universal, and if all the animals did not come from the Ark, then plain language has no meaning.

with the same distinct types as now, viz., whites, blacks, Mongols, &c.; because Abraham, who was contemporary with Noah, and who was born only 292 years after the flood, when he went to Egypt, found a Pharaoh ruling over a great nation of different physical types.*

ART. II.—THE FUTURE OF THE SOUTH.

The position which the Southern United States hold to the commercial and industrial world, is one of the most remarkable phenomena of modern times. When we reflect upon the origin of black servitude in America; its comparatively valueless results as long as Great Britain derived direct profit from the African trade; its sudden and wonderful change when, coeval with our national independence, it began to weave that thread of cotton which has gradually enveloped the commercial world, and bound the fortunes of American slaves so firmly to human progress, that civilization itself may almost be said to depend upon the continual servitude of the blacks in America. With the independence of America ceased the profits which Liverpool and London had derived from the African slave trade. Simultaneous with that loss of profit, the philanthropy of Wilberforce was awakened; and continued and persevering efforts were from that moment, through the space of half a century, made to bring about the enfranchisement of all *black* slaves. These efforts have been measurably successful with all countries where the number and importance of the blacks were inconsiderable. France and England afford notable examples of the folly of emancipating a race incapable of freedom; and the mind of the devout person who contemplates the condition of the *ci-devant* slave colonies of those two powers, must become impressed with the fact that Providence must have raised up those two examples of human folly for the express purpose of a lesson to these states, to save which from human errors it has, on more than one occasion, manifestly and directly interposed. It was doubtless the fact that, at the era of the revolution, many of the Southern states began to feel the burthen of unproductive slaves, and that a growing disposition to be clear of them manifested itself simultaneously with the mammon-prompted philanthropy of England. A great danger was thus springing up, when the inventions of the cotton-gin, the carding machine, the spinning-jenny, and the steam-engine, combined to weave that net-work of cotton which formed an indissoluble cord, binding the black, who was threatened to be cast off, to human progress. It may be well, in this connection, to make

* Since this paper was sent to press, I have received and read Dr. Morton's reply to Dr. Bachman on the question of Hybridity as a Test for Species. It is the most perfect "refutation" I have ever seen, and it is to be hoped that no one will ever waste time again in advocating the idea that *prolificacy* amongst races affords any evidence of *Common Origin*.—J. C. N.

a hasty sketch of the progress which black emancipation, under English tutelage, has made. The forcing of Africans upon these colonies by the English government, against the earnest remonstrances of the colonies, Virginia in particular, was a main reason in the list of grievances, why the authority of the crown should be thrown off. When this was accomplished, the discontinuance of the slave trade was decreed, and the traffic declared piracy by the United States. The English government followed this example, and the republican government of France emancipated suddenly the blacks of St. Domingo, giving over that fine island to the horrors of black civil war and plunder. From that time up to 1823, but little progress was made. In that year Mr. Buxton introduced a bill into Parliament for the abolition of slavery. Mr. Canning amended it on its passage, so as to prepare for gradual emancipation. Lord Bathurst notified the colonial legislature of the fact. This induced lively remonstrances on the part of the colonists, but these did not deter the government from taking those preliminary steps in 1831, which resulted in the bill presented by Lord Stanley in 1833, and which was adopted June 18, and sanctioned by the crown August 28, 1833. The principles of the bill were briefly these: After the 1st August, 1834, slavery ceased; all blacks above the age of six years became apprentices, under three heads—1st. Rural Apprentices, attached to the soil. 2d. Rural Apprentices, unattached. 3d. Non-Rural Apprentices. The two first classes were to work six years for their masters without pay, and the third class four years. The labor was limited to 45 hours per week. The blacks could *buy their time* of apprenticeship of their masters, if they had the means. The power of punishment was transferred to the magistrates.

The compensation for the blacks was to be at the rate of their average value in each island, between the years 1822 to 1830. Thus the whole number of slaves was 780,993, and their value, £45,281,738. This sum was paid *in full in cash* and *work*. Thus $\frac{3}{7}$ths in money, amounting to £20,000,000, and the remaining $\frac{4}{7}$ths in the right *to the work* of the prædials six years without pay, and non-prædials four years. The number of claims was, for prædials attached, 5,562; do. unattached, 1,708; non-prædials, 9,075. The average valuation was £44 15s.; the average money paid for each slave, £19 15s. 4¾d. The work of a slave generation in the West Indies was valued at 7¼th years, and the years of apprenticeship assigned were considered $\frac{4}{7}$ths of the pay. Although the British government, with its usual self-sufficient insolence, laid claim to the full merit of paying for the slaves, these had to contribute a large share of the remuneration for themselves. This arrangement, however, dissatisfied everybody. The slaves, who had hoped for immediate emancipation, were very impatient under this regulation, while the government agents so harassed the planters, that they were glad to sell out the time of the apprentices. In Jamaica, from August, 1834, to August, 1839, $300,000 were paid by apprentices to masters for unexpired time; and, finally, when the four years of non-prædial service had expired, the planters abandoned the remaining two years of the prædials, and August,

1838, was a day of jubilee. The valuators then reported the number of prædials at 218,669; non-prædials, 37,144—total apprentices, 255,813. Free children, under six years, 38,899; aged, 15,656—total, 310,368, against 309,167 apprentices and 38,754 free children, returned in 1834; showing an increase of 145 children, and a decrease of 53,354 apprentices. The first use of freedom was a prompt refusal to work at all; some demanded $1, $2, and $3, per day, and the best authorities show that the islands are fast sinking back to a state of savage nature. The productions of the island are yearly diminishing, notwithstanding an increased consumption of, and advance in the price of sugar in England. As the exports of the West Indies fall, the markets they afford for the sale of British goods become circumscribed. In 1836, they took £3,786,453 of British goods; in 1848, £1,434,477 only. Simultaneously with their West India experiment, the British government exerted all its influence with the small nations of Europe to procure the nominal emancipation of such black slaves as were of no material importance, either to the several states, or to any considerable interests in any of them. Those efforts which have been made by the English ministry to manufacture in Europe freedom for slaves, as they manufactured a claim against Greece, and a king for the Mosquitoes, by means of new clothes and old rum, serve only as a severe sarcasm upon the whole system of European governments. All the nations of Europe, including England, contain absolute and miserable slaves, deluded with the name of freemen. Not the most advanced of these races has reached the degree of improvement, politically and physically, that marks the black race in the Southern United States. From the nature of their geographical position, it results, that although most of the nations of Europe contain races whose life, liberty and property are at the mercy of masters, without appeal from their caprice, yet none of these are *black*. In the United States, none but black hold a subordinate position; hence no kind of slavery in Europe is bad except black. In this view, the English Government, after it set rum Sambo astride of a cask of Jamaica, with the style and title of King of the Mosquitoes, used its influence to induce the little piratical nations of Europe which possessed black slaves, to free them, and get their pay out of the skins of the white slaves. The Danish Government followed the English example of turning slaves into apprentices without wages. In 1846 the Swedish Government paid $50,000 to free the few blacks in the island of Saint Bartholomew, which amounted simply to turning adrift a few useless negroes. The most brilliant triumphs of this nature were, however, in Tunis, Egypt, and Bohemian Wallachia. In the last named country, there is a population of 1,747,815 souls, including Goths, Gepidæ, Huns, Lombards, Tartars, Turks, and Gipseys. These are all slaves, most abject and miserable, hardly above the savage condition—the women being compelled to do the labor, living in under-ground caverns, and using dry dung as fuel to cook a scanty meal. These poor creatures are owned by a nobility and clergy, who are exempted from taxes and the payment of private debts. The most inconsiderable in numbers and

lowest in the social scale, are the Gipseys, of whom there are about 150,000, owned by individuals and the government, the latter holding about 60,000. They pay 30 piastres, or $2.10 per annum, per head, for the privilege of being at large, upon binding themselves not to quit the country. In 1846 the government was induced to waive its ownership of these poor creatures, who are but strolling vagabonds, and this "triumph of philanthropy" was proclaimed throughout Europe as a long stride towards universal freedom, and an example to the United States, although the slavery of all those *not belonging* directly to the government remains as before. The next "grand triumph" of freedom was a successful negotiation, in 1847, with the Pacha of Egypt, for the release of his *black* slaves. The population of Egypt numbers 2,500,000; the larger proportion being Arab Egyptians, and are all the property of the Pacha. There is in Egypt no personal liberty whatever. The government claims and enforces its right to the labor of every man, willing or not willing; and no labor is performed unless under the immediate direction of the government officers, from whom alone the individual can procure supplies. Amidst this community of slaves, there are Caucasian men and women, white slaves to the rich, and a few negro slaves brought from Numidia. The English philanthropy had such an effect upon the Pacha as to induce him, March, 1847, to free the last named, allowing the rest to remain as before! Soon after, similar influences began to work in the Barbary states, where the absolute dependence of all persons in life, liberty, and property, upon the nod of the Bey, makes life valueless to a man. The trade of these poor creatures, who send three caravans a year into the interior, involves the bringing back occasionally a few negro slaves. As these were no particular benefit to the Bey, who owns the whole 2,500,000 people, he was induced by the English agent, for a small consideration, to follow the illustrious example of that ultra-democrat, the Pacha of Egypt, and alter the style of the servitude of those blacks, and Exeter Hall had another "triumph," and again the United States were bade to imitate the glorious example of the Mediterranean pirates.

The experience of the French government in its dealings with the black race, has been even more unfortunate than has been that of the English. The bloody disasters which overtook the once magnificent possession of St. Domingo, have, for more than half a century, remained a monument of black brutality. Taught somewhat by that lesson, the French government, in 1831, by a law of that year, provided for gradual emancipation in its remaining colonies. Under the operation of that law, the number of slaves diminished from 294,481 to 258,956, in 1835. The productions of the islands were not, however, materially checked, and the system seemed to work well. The revolution of February, 1848, repeated the error towards the blacks committed by that of 1791, and slavery was suddenly abolished. That the same bloody results have not followed, is because the home government promptly laid the islands under martial law, as the only means of preserving the whites from massacre. The presence of a

sufficient force is all that stays for the moment a war of races. In relation to labor, the consequences are the same as in Jamaica, viz., a prompt abandonment of work at any price. In 1836, 4,932 hands produced in Martinique 6,056,990 lbs. of sugar, or one hhd. each; in 1849, the proceeds averaged one hhd. to 34 hands. The official returns of the French government for 1849, are not yet received; those, however, for 1847 and 1848, the last being the year of abolition, are as follows:

IMPORTS FROM AND EXPORTS TO THE WEST INDIA COLONIES FROM FRANCE.

	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
1847	73,347,168	39,954,084	113,301,252
1848	35,992,153	19,239,604	55,231,757
Decrease..francs	37,355,015	20,714,480	58,079,495

This shows a decline of more than one-half in the first year, and for 1849 it is greater, as indicated by customs returns. The sugar imported into France fell off one-half, and was made up by receipts of foreign slave sugar. The experience in relation to St. Domingo will be confirmed in the other islands.

We have thus stated roughly the course of abolitionism, in order to understand the lesson which it conveys. It is this. The black race has inhabited the African continent as long at least as the whites have occupied Europe, and the yellow and red races Asia. All these have more or less advanced from the rudest savage state, in manner and degree, according to their inherent intellectuality. The black race, however, has made no progress whatever. They were without invention, almost without language, and destitute of the faculties or wish to advance. These beings, or such of them as had, by the fortune of internal wars, become the victims of their cannibal captors, were rescued from that fate to become the forced cultivators of the soil in the newly discovered countries of America. A few years of that compulsory labor was supposed by the English government so to have changed their natures, that, made free, they would not resume the indolent and savage habits which had marked the race since the creation, but would become so perseveringly industrious for wages, as to enable their employers to compete with the slave owners of Cuba and Brazil, in supplying Europe with sugar, coffee and cotton; keep in employ one-fourth the people of Great Britain, maintain her merchant marine, and enable her to continue her commercial and manufacturing supremacy. The erroneousness of this view has, by experiment, now been proved to all the world.

The experiment has been sufficiently tested by emancipation, in the manner we have sketched, in the colonies of France and England, and by increase of free blacks among the whites of the United States; and it has been proved, beyond a possibility of doubt, that the black race cannot even maintain the position to which they are raised by a few years of servitude, without continued coercion. Left to themselves, they will not work, no matter how great may be the inducements or facilities, but sink back mentally to the dark superstitions

of their cannibal natures. This truth has not only been demonstrated, but admitted by the best English authorities, even those which formerly were the most hopeful advocates of black equality. The policy of the English was, and continues to be, in relation to its West Indies, to cause them to be abandoned by the whites, and become entirely black colonies, in the sole possession of the descendants of slaves. Already, however, the rapidly sinking condition of the colonies has convinced the thinking men of England, that the scheme is impossible; that to abandon them to the blacks, is to abandon them to worse than a state of nature; and means of retracing the unfortunate steps taken appear to be earnestly sought for.

In contemplating these facts, there presents itself this important consideration, viz., the four articles which are most necessary to modern civilization, sugar, coffee, cotton and tobacco, are products of compulsory black labor. Whenever coercion has been removed from that labor, its productions have ceased, and the experiments to prove this fact conclusively, have been made in localities where the results, although injurious to the experimenters, have not much affected the general interests of mankind.

England itself, at this moment, by a sort of retribution, is in some sort the slave of Southern blacks. She it was that created American black slavery, and her existence has now come to depend upon its products. There are few persons who reflect upon the immense superstructure of wealth and power which is reared upon the foundation of American slave culture of cotton. The United States trade is almost altogether based upon that industry; some approximation may be arrived at, taking the last year, 1850.

EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES, 1850.

	Southern produce exported.	Value of whole production.
Cotton, raw	71,984,616	$105,600,000
" manufactures	4,734,424	100,000,000
Tobacco	9,951,223	15,000,000
Rice	2,631,557	3,000,000
Naval stores	1,142,713	2,000,000
Sugar	23,037	12,396,150
Hemp	5,633	695,840
Provisions from New-Orleans	3,523,809	138,691,990
and oth. articl. from the South	6,000,000	
Total	99,997,012	
North. and West. Exports	34,903,221	
Total Exports	134,900,233	

Although the cotton manufactures are made at the North, they are based upon slave labor.

Under the head of "other articles from the South," is embraced corn and flour from Virginia, manufactured tobacco, snuff, and there might also be included gold to the extent of $1,000,000 per annum; but we have not included gold in the exports. The provisions from New-Orleans embrace: flour, pork, bacon, lard, beef and corn ex-

ported to foreign ports direct from New-Orleans, and which are purchased from the north-western country for sugar, tobacco and cotton sent up the river, an operation equivalent to an annual export of those articles. The value is thus given in the New-Orleans price current, and it will be observed that the whole amount exported from the Union of these articles is $19,146,658, consequently one-fifth of the whole export of farm produce goes from New-Orleans. It is thus apparent that 75 per cent. of the exports of the Union are the product of slave labor in northern ships, and that consequently, as the imports of the country are paid for in the exports, 75 per cent. of the importations are the remuneration for the product of slave labor. Inasmuch as that the whole exports and imports of the country taken together are derived 75 per cent from the slave labor, the same ratio of freight is derived by the shipping, which is owned as follows:

UNITED STATES TONNAGE.

Owned.	Registered.	Enrolled.	Total 1848.	Total 1850.	Increase.
South	159,956	334,845	494,797	743,805	249,008
North	1,201,930	1,456,314	2,658,244	2,791,649	133,405
Total	1,361,886	1,791,159	3,153,041	3,535,454	482,413

The registered tonnage is that engaged in the foreign trade, and the enrolled that of the coasting trade. Although much the largest portion is owned at the North, the result of the comparison is, that the increase to the South in the last two years has been double that of the North, and moreover, that increase of the South has been 50 per cent. of what was owned in that section in 1848, a marked step in advance. According to the official returns, the 2,700,000 tons of the United States ships engaged in foreign trade, make one voyage in a year; that is to say, two passages, one out and one home. The freights will average $12 per ton each way: this gives $64,800,000 freights earned in a year, of which $48,600,000 is earned by northern ship owners by carrying slave products and their proceeds. The coasting transportation of southern products by northern vessels will give $7,000,000, making $55,600,000 earned by the ship owners. To earn this money it requires that ships should be built, and the census return for 1840 showed the value of ships built in the Union for that year to be $7,016,094; and as the Treasury Reports showed the tonnage built in that year to be 120,988, which gives an average of $55 per ton, the census was probably correct. Of the $7,016,094, less than $300,000 was in slave states; all the rest was expended at the North among all those who live by that manufacturing, lumber-men who float the monarchs of the forest to the seaboard for the shipwrights to fashion, architects, shipwrights, blacksmiths, sheathers, calkers, riggers, cordage and sailmakers, with their backers, the hemp and flax growers and canvass weavers. Thus affording immense employment to busy ship-yards, until the ship "a taunto" has passed the hands of cabinet makers and upholsterers, and is ready for her cargo, which employs gangs of stevedores, cartmen, shopmen and clerks, with premiums to insurance offices, until her shipping articles complete, under the command of a thriving pilot, 20 stout

seamen whose families are provided with "draw bills" for their wages, sheet home her canvass to the breeze, and she seeks in foreign climes a profit upon her southern cargo, to remunerate the outlay of capital that has created her and given activity to so many interests.

The privilege which the Northen States have thus enjoyed in being free carriers for southern produce to Europe, as well as of bringing it to their own water-courses for conversion into goods to be recarried to the South, and sold at a profit above the cost of the raw material, with freights, insurance, exchange, commissions and wages superadded, has formed the marked distinction which is manifest between the present condition of New-England and Canada. Why is it that the latter, possessed of English enterprise and capital, and endowed with large expenditures on such public works as the Welland and Rideau canals, are impoverished, idle and retrograding, while New-England is advancing with rapid strides to wealth and power? Clearly because the latter enjoys freely the right to carry and manufacture the products of slave labor, from which Canada is excluded. This fact, and the fear of being deprived of the privilege involved, has excited much interest of late in New-England: and C. Haskett Derby, Esq., a well known factory and rail-road speculator, undertook, in the last October number of Hunt's Magazine, to reply to the able pamphlet entitled, the "Union, and how to save it," and published in Charleston. Mr. Derby's reply had very little force, and we refer to it here merely as an illustration of a single point. The pamphlet showed, that as the exports of the country are mostly from the South, the proceeds returning in shape of goods belong to the section whence emanated the means of paying for them, and the duties exacted from these goods were therefore taken from the South. Mr. Derby remarks:

"Let us examine his theory as to duties. It is a very simple one. Not that the South has directly paid such duties, for they have been paid principally at the North; but the whole theory rests upon the fact that the duties are paid on imports; that the South supplies nearly two-thirds the exports of the Union; and the duty being levied on the proceeds, are paid *not by the consumer*, but by the South."

This is slightly misstated; the South is both consumer of the goods and producer of the means of paying for them. Again, says Mr. Derby:

"Take a case in point. A New-England ship sails for Charleston with a cargo of granite, ice, fish, and manufactures. She exchanges them for lumber, rice and cotton. She then sails for Liverpool, makes freight and profit; then to Cardiff, where the proceeds are invested in slate or iron, and returns to Boston. What has the South to do with these imports? They have been bought by the North and paid for—how do 'they belong to,' and how are they "to be divided among the producers of the exports?'"

The question is not of a few stones, a little ice, and a few fish, but of that large amount combined in the last enumerated word, "manufactures," and which Mr. Derby slurs over so glibly. Now the robbery consists precisely in that operation. The "manufactures" which this

New-England ship carries to Charleston, as the means of buying cotton, are raised in value 30 per cent. by the present tariff, and by the old tariff 80 per cent.; that is to say, Liverpool being the largest market, regulates the price of cotton. Fair cotton is now fourteen cents, and certain Lowell sheetings 7 cents per yard; that is to say, two yards of the latter are given for one lb. of cotton. But the English will give three yards for one lb. The tariff says, no; and the government, for every three yards imported, takes one. It is not only the duties upon the articles actually imported, of which the South pays so large a share, but upon a corresponding advance caused by the duty upon all Northern manufactured articles; that is to say, one-third of all the produce sold by the South to the North, and paid for in manufactured goods, is confiscated to the use of the manufacturers. Mr. Derby makes the following very strange assertion:

"But does the slave use the costly linens, silks, woollens, liquors, coffee, sugar, tea, and other valuables from abroad? Clad in coarse attire, eating his coarser fare, he knows little of such luxuries. Our imports now average at least ninety dollars per head for our white population. The slave cannot average one-third of this amount. The great consumers are the whites, both southern and northern.

"Let us allow for this difference, and the consumption of foreign imports in the slave States will fall below three-tenths of the entire importation. The slave States will consequently be found to pay less than three-tenths of the entire duties,—less than their ratio under the Constitution."

The white population of the Union, by the present census, will be about 17,000,000. "Ninety dollars per head" would give for imports $1,530,000,000, say one thousand five hundred and thirty millions. The actual imports are $163,000,000. So much for his accuracy of calculation. But, says he, the imports are luxuries which slaves don't use. We cannot see how that alters the fact. If by means of a high tariff the northern manufacturer obtains one-third of the southern produce for nothing, he may, of course, buy luxuries, or as we have lately seen done, buy the office of minister to England, and become the toady of dukes, or indulge his taste in any way. Let us take an illustration from the Massachusetts census.

NUMBER OF COTTON AND WOOLLEN FACTORIES, SPINDLES AND LOOMS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

	Cotton.		Woollen.	
	Factories.	Spindles.	Factories.	Spindles.
1840	278	624,540	144	113,457
1850	337	1,220,752	191	208,848

It appears that the number of spindles has doubled, consequently the consumption of cotton has doubled, and of wool the increase has been 80 per cent. The capital invested in cotton has risen from $17,414,079 to $35,000,000, and the persons employed from 21,000 to 35,000. The South has had to pay the North 30 per cent. more for woollen as for other goods, than they would have been furnished for by the other customers for rice, cotton, and tobacco; and it is the

operation of this tribute which has caused the factories to double in ten years. Of the chief staples of the South, the productions, exports, and home consumption of the last year, have been nearly as follows :—

	Exported.	Home Consumption.	Total Production.
Cotton	71,984,616	33,615,386	105,600,000
Tobacco	9,951,223	5,048,777	15,000,000
Rice	2,631,887	400,000	3,031,557
Naval Stores	1,142.713	800,000	1,942,713
Sugar	23,037	12,396,150	12,419,147
Hemp	5,633	690,207	695,840
Total	$85,738,779	52,950,520	138,689,297

The largest portion of this home consumption has been exchanged with the North and West; with the latter on equal terms, receiving breadstuffs, provisions, &c., in exchange. With the North there has been received merchandise enhanced one-third in value by the operation of the tariff, or, as Mr. Derby expresses it, that produce has been purchased by the North in exchange for manufactures. The southern produce was given at its cash value in the markets of the world, while the manufactures of the North were taken at a fictitious value created by the operation of the tariff. If, after purchasing on such terms, the northern merchant chooses to export that produce, Mr. Derby asserts the South has not been fleeced, because the identical articles brought back do not go to the individual planters. To illustrate: Suppose fair cotton is twelve cents per lb., regulated by the cash price in Liverpool, and that for one lb. of such cotton the Manchester man will give three yards of a certain description of cloth, valued at eight cents. A New-England manufacturer asks twelve cents for the same cloth, and gets it, because Congress imposes four cents per yard on the Manchester cloth. The northern merchant then sends two yards of cloth and obtains one lb. of cotton; he then sends abroad the cotton and buys silk with it. Mr. Derby says the South has nothing to do with this luxury! Yet the trade is based upon the southern product, which has been obtained by the North, under the operation of the tariff, cheaper than it otherwise could have been. In the same manner, a vast northern capital operates upon the same bases. We have seen that the shipping is mostly owned at the North, and draws its revenue from southern freights, at an average of $40 per ton. The northern shipping is worth $111,665,960. The capital invested in commercial houses is $81,000,000, including dry goods and tobacco shops; in cotton factories, $105,000,000; in machine making and other trades incident to factories, $2,000,000; in rail-roads dependent upon factory prosperity, $30,000,000. These items make together $329,665,960 of capital employed at the North, which depends altogether upon slave labor, and which would be annihilated and valueless in the event of emancipation, as was the property of the West Indies. Large as is this northern interest in the United States, dependent upon slave labor, it is far inferior to the British interest, also dependent

upon slaves. One half of the whole external trade of Great Britain is dependent upon cotton. Thus, the declared value of cotton goods exported in 1849 was £26,890,794, say $130,000,000; and the whole export was £58,848,042, say $290,000,000. The cotton goods manufactured constituting so large a portion of the exports, of course the imports of which, raw cotton, was £12,838,850, or $54,000,000, purchased with those goods, are dependent upon the same basis. The immense shipping interest also derives its support from the same source. The amount of British capital directly invested in cotton is, by the best authorities, given as follows:—

Capital employed in the purchase of raw material	£12,838,850
" " wages of operatives	12,000,000
" " hand-loom weavers	7,000,000
" " mills, looms, &c.	35,000,000
Total	£66,838,850
Or in United States money	$320,826,480

The number of factory operatives and hand-loom weavers and bleachers, 1,300,000, and the number of persons dependent on the manufacture, 2,200,000. If we add to the capital directly invested in cotton the property which depends upon it in a collateral manner, the result is not far from $700,000,000, and on the continent, $200,000,000, making, probably, $1,230,000,000 of property, with 7,000,000 people, which depend for their existence upon keeping employed the 3,000,000 negroes in the Southern states. When we reflect upon the vastness of this industrial fabric, reared upon the frail foundation of black labor, and find persons rashly meddling with the only incentive to that labor, the most stupendous example of human folly presents itself.

The time is, however, rapidly approaching, when the South and West will manufacture the greatest proportion of their own raw products; and that large shipping interest in Europe and the North which depends upon the transport of the raw products, will find itself confined to the carrying of goods; while the markets of the world will come to depend upon the Mississippi valley for wrought fabrics, as they have hitherto done for the raw material. New-Orleans may become the Liverpool of America, communicating by the father of waters with that vast region which is to be the Manchester of the world.

The essential difference between the position of the cotton manufactures in the United States and Great Britain, may be illustrated by a few figures. The consumption in the United States last year was given at 595,269 bales, say 238,107,600 lbs., which is very nearly the quantity which Great Britain manufactured in 1827, that was 249,804,396 lbs. The difference is in the quantities consumed at home, and this is indicated in the value exported, as follows:—

CONSUMPTION OF COTTON AND VALUE OF FABRICS EXPORTED IN UNITED STATES AND GREAT BRITAIN.

	Cotton, lbs.	Value.	Value of Cotton Goods exported.
G. B., 1827	249,804,396	$34,972,615	$84,658,382
U. S., 1850	238,107,600	26,787,105	4,734,424

Thus it appears that in 1827 the consumption of cotton goods in England was very small, almost the whole of the manufacture was exported. In the United States last year, an equal quantity was manufactured, and more than the whole of it consumed, because a considerable quantity was imported in addition. This is an important difference. The English manufacture had grown up during a war, and when there were no manufactures in any other nation; she had the supply of the world, but not the means of consuming herself. Since then, manufactures all over the world have sprung up, and the United States have built up and supplied a market at home equal to the whole English manufacture for the world in 1827. The American market has, however, become glutted by home competition. The following figures give the cotton consumed in the United States at three periods.

CONSUMPTION OF COTTON PER HEAD IN THE UNITED STATES.

	Cotton, lbs.	Population.	Cotton, per head, equal to yards.
1830	50,804,800	12,866,020	4 lbs 12
1840	118,357,200	17,069,453	7 " 21
1850	238,107,600	22,000,000	10¾ " 32¼

Such has been the progress of cotton manufacture and consumption in this country in 20 years! It has increased from 12 to 32¼ yards each for a population that has increased 10,000,000, or nearly doubled. In a late English return, the weight of cotton spun in 1849, in England, is given at 626,710,660 lbs.; net weight of yarn, 558,-163,700 lbs.; weight of yarn exported in goods and yarn, 421,742,935 lbs.; weight consumed at home, 136,420,765 lbs. This, among a population of 31,000,000, gives an average of 4¾ lbs. each, or 13¼ yards, being over 19 yards per head less than the United States consumption. These figures show in a most remarkable degree not only the superior condition of the people of the United States, but the overwrought state of the cotton manufacture, which is now in a depressed state, yet cannot compete with England by exporting to neutral markets, because the scale of production has been under a system of protection, which forbids sales on a fair footing with English goods.

It is evident from the primary fact, that a large portion of the industrial prosperity of both Old and New England depends upon a staple drawn from the Southern States of America; that the seat of manufactures has occupied a wrong locality: that is to say, it has, in relation to facility of production, occupied a position disadvantageously situated when purely economical principles are taken into account. For the most ready productions of manufactured goods, it is necessary that all the materials of which they are composed should be found, together with the motive power, in neighborhoods capable of producing the best and cheapest food for the support of the operatives, and that all these circumstances should exist and be easily accessible. It has, however, hitherto never been the case that all these means have been combined in any one locality. England has possessed the most of them, and in the earlier years of her progress sufficient to supply her demands. Her geographical position is such, surrounded by the ocean, that no wind can blow from any quarter of the compass without favor-

ing her commerce. From which point soever the breeze proceeds, it is fair for the arrival of some of her ships and for the departure of others. This facility of communication before the age of steam, gave her immense advantages, as it made her ports the depot for the raw produce of all countries, and the source whence, after being wrought up by English industry, goods were derived by all nations. With such advantages, the business of England could not but increase until the demands of her operatives for food and raw materials exceeded the capacity of her own soil to supply them. The cost of these things to consumers would then naturally be enhanced by the cost of transportation and duties on the additional quantities imported, and thus an enhanced cost was occasioned at a moment when the competition of foreigners reduced the price of the fabrics. The mere fact of a larger transportation of raw produce was regarded as a good, in a political view, inasmuch as that, by employing more shipping, it fostered that navy on which England depended; but if that cost carried prices beyond the point at which foreigners could compete, it defeated its own object. The government therefore removed duties on raw produce, on food, and finally abolished the navigation laws, in order that all those things might be supplied in England at cheaper rates. The virtual effect of these measures was to extend the breadth of English soil, because they placed at the command of her people the products of vast tracts of land in other regions. Gradually, however, the countries which produced the most of those raw products came to work them up into goods, and by this competition to reduce the prices of fabrics; and the English returns show, that while the quantities of food and raw material imported were immensely increased, the value of goods made from them was not increased. In the year 1842, the policy of admitting food and raw materials began to be adopted; we have compiled a table of the progress of the country since that year. In this connection it may be well to allude to the financial difficulties of the English government which led to this change. For many years prior to 1842 the revenue was deficient, and every means had been adopted to swell the amount. In 1840, the Chancellor, Mr. Baring, had caused to be imposed an additional duty of five per cent. upon all imports. By his calculation that amount would cover the deficit. The result was the reverse. The customs, after the imposition of the five per cent., did not yield so much as before. The ministry changed, and Sir Robert Peel's principle was adopted. This was by remitting duties to promote a larger consumption of the taxed articles, and by so doing, enable the people to pay. Since that time duties, amounting to nearly £11,000,000, say $50,000,000, have been remitted, and the aggregate customs revenue has increased $10,000,000.

In order to show the details of which the table is composed, we annex the following, showing the actual quantities of food and leading raw materials imported for consumption in 1836, and for the last three years:

QUANTITIES OF FOOD AND RAW MATERIALS IMPORTED INTO GREAT BRITAIN.

		1836.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850, 8 ms. to Sept. 5.
Animals	No.	none.	219679	203440	185235	98742
Hams	cwt.	none.	17203	7717	12282	9346
Bacon	"	1433	90530	211315	384325	295040
Beef	"	1222	112683	144857	144638	105918
Butter	"	143149	314126	294427	282501	211239
Cheese	"	134643	354802	441635	397648	208592
Rice	"	98227	1560402	996372	925316	320504
Pork	"	29	235798	254070	347352	181170
Sugar	"	3856562	8209527	6869931	6925851	4206784
Molasses	"	622479	949823	517534	1062661	590510
Tallow	"	1005276	1099275	1498359	1468719	161733
Lard	"			342040	185838	215088
Total	"	5863020	18944168	11547757	12187136	6506106
Cocoa	lbs.	1084170	5716375	6442986	7769234	1963129
Coffee	"	23295041	37472153	37153450	34431506	20967150
Pepper	"	2359573	2967000	3125545	3296079	1906734
Tea	"	36574004	46326582	47774755	53460751	34334900
Tobacco	"	21803775	26545020	27098314	27488621	18109321
Pimento	"	344458	1366625	2338200	3881800	21500
Total	lbs.	85461026	120391755	123933250	129327991	177596234
Flour and Grain in quarters		420024	12303751	6327244	11882900	6089098
Cotton	lbs.	326407692	486951800	717443100	758841600	485877200
Wool	"	41718514	62592598	69343477	75100883	55350864
Silk	"	5658211	5603915	9593724	7021761	4981676
Hemp	"	72352200	91301100	95177100	119127300	55137040
Flax	"	81916100	118460012	164666100	203000900	114102675
Total	lbs.	531237896	764849425	1053321701	1163092444	715469451

If now we take the cwts. and lbs. together in lbs. for each year, we have results as follows:

	Animals, No.	Flour & Grain. in qrs.	Food, lbs.	Raw Materials, lbs.
1836	none.	420,024	772,275,871	670,868,216
1842	5,340	2,572,620	778,971,593	732,507,490
1843	2,100	1,379,290	599,362,269	884,287,381
1844	8,008	2,780,392	843,214,168	922,924,124
1845	28,675	1,308,260	948,615,050	1,038,859,643
1846	122,458	4,056,414	961,234,984	741,607,365
1847	219,679	12,303,751	1,576,810,655	764,849,425
1848	203,440	6,327,224	1,433,305,932	1,053,221,501
1849	185,235	11,882,900	1,490,480,220	1,163,092,444

This increase of food and raw materials imported for the use of English operatives is almost incredible. The dye stuffs of which the weight for 1849 was 185,249,650 lbs., is not included. If we estimate the cost of transportation at the simple freight now current, it will give a high figure. Freights are now very low—a bushel of grain is carried from New-York to England for 10 cents, and 3 lbs. of cotton for one cent. If we take these two figures as the average for all the freights, it will be far within the mark; the cost will then stand as follows:

	Quarters, Grain.	Freight. Dolls.	Food and Materials, lbs.	Freight. Dolls.	Total Freight.
1842	2,582,620	2,058,096	1,511,479,083	5,038,268	7,696,359
1844	2,280,392	2,224,314	1,766,138,292	5,887,127	8,110,441
1849	11,882,900	9,506,320	2,653,672,672	8,345,242	17,851,562

If now we compare these freights with the declared value of textile fabrics, we have results as follows:

	1842.	1844.	1849.
Freights	$7,096,369	8,111,541	17,831,562
Value Exports	$150,765,298	190,925,705	193,991.780

As compared with 1844, the amount of freights has increased $9,700,000, while the value of the goods has risen but $3,000,000. Thus, without taking into account the price of the articles, the freight account is 6,700,000 or 3½ per cent. against the English manufacturer; and that difference, as seen in the table, is constantly increasing. The effect of the famine year, 1847, was to enhance the import of food and diminish that of raw materials, since when both items are more than ever.

It is now very apparent, from the general principles evolved in these tables, that England cannot continue to increase her demands for food and materials brought from a distance, and compete with those countries which have all these things within themselves, and with which the freight amount is nothing. What a strange absurdity it is to see silk going from China and France, cotton from the southern United States, wool from Australia, coffee and sugar from Brazils, wheat from New-York, Michigan, Odessa and Poland, hemp and flax from St. Petersburg, pork and lard from Ohio and Illinois, all concentrating in Lancashire, to be returned in the shape of goods to the localities whence they came! Such a state of things never could have been brought about but for the geographical position of England giving her control of the ocean. The progress of internal improvements making land carriage equally favorable with that by water, has developed regions like the valley of the Mississippi, where all those articles which the marine of England seeks in every section of the world, exist together, of the best qualities and in limitless abundance; land and its produce, raw materials and motive power, lie in juxtaposition, and goods can there be turned out in such a manner that England's freight account alone will be a prodigious profit to the manufacturer.

The position of New-England is very similar to that of old England. We find coal and iron going thither from Pennsylvania; sugar, cotton, pork and flour, from New-Orleans; wool and food from Illinois and Wisconsin, to be sent back in the shape of goods. It was the water-power and industry of New-England that made the cost of transportation light; but improvements in steam machinery has made power "locomotive," and motive power is now existent in the midst of those materials, which nature has with such prodigality bestowed upon the South, and the blacks are equally serviceable in factories as in fields. There are conditions which shadow forth the greatness and power of the South, and as she rises in power and wealth she will elevate the black race with her. She will have, however, to encounter the jealous hatred of rivals whose philanthropy will be developed as her prosperity increases. It is, however, through the long lesson of industry taught by white surveillance, that the great work of regenerating the black race can be accomplished.

ART. III.—BUTLER'S REVIEW OF THE "SPANISH PARTIES IN THE WEST."

In the August and October numbers of the Commercial Review, the readers were presented with a discourteous critique, or review, purporting to be from the pen of Mann Butler, of St. Louis, (but erroneously printed *Mason* Butler,) concerning a former article which appeared in the April and May numbers of the present year, headed "Early Spirit of the West, or *Political Parties and Factions in Kentucky and the Western Country, from* 1788 *to* 1806."

The writer of the latter article, and of the present response, does not yield even to Mann Butler, author of the History of Kentucky, in his estimate of the exalted moral worth and patriotic devotion in the great body of the early pioneers of Kentucky; nor in the generous pride which glows in his bosom, as he recounts their deeds of noble daring, their fortitude and persevering enterprise in the western wilds, and the intelligence, moral worth, and devoted patriotism, so characteristic of her early statesmen and legislators. And it is with him a source of regret, that they have not been so fortunate as to have secured a more able advocate than the author of these feeble attempts to vindicate their fair fame.

In the article which has elicited such discourteous and undignified censure, if the author has been beguiled into an erroneous estimate of one or more of the distinguished men who have appeared upon the stormy ocean of Kentucky politics, it is because a portion of their cotemporaries and political opponents have ascribed to them a false attitude, and unworthy motives in their efforts to promote the public welfare and the general good.

In tracing the progress of civil government, and the political changes in Kentucky, it has by no means been our desire to place any of the actors in a false light, but to record, with the fair and impartial pen of history, the true position and the actual movements of the prominent *dramatis personæ*. The early history of Kentucky politics is characterized by some peculiarities of circumstances, and some asperities of party feeling, not common to any other Western states prior to their admission into the Federal Union. The early settlements of this chivalrous and patriotic state were exposed to dangers and privation, within and without; to partial and oppressive legislation by the state of Virginia, and by the federal government; to foreign intrigue and disaffection at home, and to the incursions of a savage foe, unprotected by either the state or federal government; without trade and commerce, at home or abroad; while all they could ask or desire was temptingly held out to them by foreign powers, save only their filial attachment to the Federal Union.

Thus circumstanced, it was a natural consequence that disaffection should exist, that foreign intrigue should be encouraged, and that some should renounce their attachment to a continuance of this state of existence; but to the perpetual glory of Kentucky, the virtuous

patriotism, and the attachment for the Union and the political freedom secured by the American revolution, in the great body of the people, was sufficient to control the elements of discord, and harmonize the popular excitement into social order and peace.

During the unsettled state of public opinion, and the uncertainty which seemed to brood over the ultimate destiny of Kentucky, men of integrity and undoubted patriotism, ardently attached to the principles of popular government, and the Constitution of the United States, were sometimes betrayed by circumstances into political measures which experience and subsequent events rendered inexpedient, and even obnoxious to popular indignation. Hence, measures which at one period might appear well calculated to advance the public interests, by some unexpected change of circumstances, or of popular opinion and feeling, might become imminently prejudicial; and a politician might forfeit his claim to public favor on account of an error of judgment, without the imputation of dishonor.

Such may have been the case with some of the early statesmen and politicians of Kentucky, during the existence of the old confederation, and the first years of the new, while the experiment was still untried as to the ultimate destiny of the Union, and of the Western country in particular.

Hence, in the distracted and unsettled condition of the public mind in Kentucky at that time, impartial history cannot impute to John Brown, Colonel George Muter, Colonel James Wilkinson, or Judge Samuel McDowell, any taint of treason or dishonor in any of their known acts, in reference to the Spanish overtures through Señor Guardoqui to the people of Kentucky, in the year 1788. At that time it was their duty, as delegates of the convention, to receive and examine each and every proposition submitted to their consideration, which could bear upon the important subject of a contemplated state government. They gave the Spanish overtures such consideration as they deemed proper, and withheld it from public notice, from motives of prudence and policy.

Similar overtures were made the following year by Connolly, the British emissary from Canada; but his reception was such that he did not long remain to urge its claims upon the people of Kentucky. We do not presume to censure those individuals who were the mere mediums of these communications to the people of Kentucky, because, without such agency, a knowledge of their existence would have been unknown. The subsequent establishment of a state government, and the admission of that state into the Union in 1792, proves them to have been only harmless incidental circumstances.

If, before the adoption of the state constitution, parties in favor of either of these overtures existed, they had a right to declare their preference, and, abiding the decision of the ruling majority, to acquiesce in the established government. This being done, all former opposition ceases, and is forgotten in the general harmony.

Such is the light in which we would view erring statesmen and politicians attached to any of the factions in Kentucky prior to the year 1792: but the impartial eye of history will take a different view of

such as were engaged in unlawful attempts, whether intrigues or conspiracies, to disturb or subvert the established government. With this view of the subject, the writer of the article, "Early Spirit of the West," is satisfied that in adopting the language used in the "Western World," injustice may have been done to the memory of the Honorable John Brown and others, by reason of the strong coloring with which it is imbued, from political opposition, and the rancor of party spirit. Yet it cannot be doubted that they were intimately acquainted with the several intrigues attempted by the English, Spanish or French emissaries in Kentucky, from 1788 to 1797.

With respect to the Spanish intrigue or conspiracy, instituted and directed by the Baron de Carondelet, through his emissary, Thomas Power, with Benjamin Sebastian and other prominent men of Kentucky, in the years 1794, 1795, 1796 and 1797, after the state of Kentucky had for years been a member of the Federal Union, we can only say, that not only the individuals concerned, but the facts and the circumstances, have all been fully disclosed, and have become matters of history, which do not depend solely upon the feeble and incoherent narrative, or the rhapsodies of a partial and interested compiler, or a professed eulogist.

The closing portion of Mr. Butler's article, in the October number of the Commercial Review, entitled "*Spanish Parties in the West*," like the first, in the August number, entitled "*Monette's 'Early Spirit of the West' Reviewed*," is but a repetition of the injudicious, feeble, incoherent and inconsistent rhapsody, calculated only to mystify and extenuate the culpability of those directly and indirectly concerned in the intrigue of Power, the Spanish emissary of the Baron de Carondelet, for the separation of the state of Kentucky from the Federal Union, as contained in the 14th chapter of the second edition of Butler's History of Kentucky, from page 243 to 257.

The writer has no desire to detract from the high moral character, the distinguished talents, and the well-earned fame of John Brown, George Nicholas, Harry Innis, George Muter and William Murray; but, as politicians and statesmen, their acts and secret negotiations, or intrigues with the Spanish authorities, although for years concealed from the public eye, have long since become matters of history, and, as such, the common property of mankind.

The "Western World," which excites the utmost abhorrence in the sensibilities of Mr. Butler, was a strong Federal paper in Kentucky, and for about two years, from 1806 to 1808, was the undaunted exponent of the Federal party, and the uncompromising enemy to every species of disunion which had taken root in the West; and its energies were devoted mainly to the exposure of the secret intrigues of those who had been implicated with the Spanish party in their secret attempts at disunion. As many of these persons had attained to office and emolument, the exposures of the "Western World" became extremely annoying to them, and created a strong and deeply interested opposition in all those who were obnoxious, and desired to cast the mantle of oblivion over the past acts of their political history.

It may be a matter of some interest to Mann Butler, the historian

of Kentucky, and to others who take pleasure in tracing the various phases and vicissitudes of Western politics in early times, to learn, that in a future edition of "Monette's History of the Valley of the Mississippi," to be enlarged and greatly improved, the chapters containing "*The political relations of Louisiana with the United States, from the treaty of* 1783 *to the surrender of the Natchez District in* 1798," will contain a more full and complete account of all the Spanish intrigues in Kentucky and the West, than has been heretofore prepared by any author known to the writer. In this account, the subject will be illustrated with authentic papers and statements, so as to give no occasion for personal injustice or erroneous construction.

The whole subject, when fully understood, from its commencement, through all its phases and permutations, to its termination, will no doubt convince Mr. Butler that all his attempts at narration and pompous declamation, as set forth not only in his history of Kentucky, but also in the August and October numbers of De Bow's Commercial Review of 1850, are only imperfect, partial, and disconnected rhapsodies, conveying no important information to direct the reader in his anxious inquiries after correct historical truth.

The writer has no desire to criticise Mr. Butler's remarks concerning the character and services of General Wilkinson. He must be aware of the fact, that the "History of the Valley of the Mississippi," to which he has referred, is the first work of the kind which has done full justice to the actions and motives of this enterprising, talented, patriotic, and truly worthy pioneer of the West. *His firm attachment to the Federal Union*, to which he adhered, as Mr. Jefferson declared, "*with the honor of a soldier, and the fidelity of a good citizen*," when Burr had united the remnant of the Spanish party and other disunionists against it, gave rise to the storm of persecution that was hurled at him, and raged during the remainder of his life.

In conclusion, we regret that we cannot, in justice to our own convictions of truth and propriety, award to Mr. Butler that meed of merit which might have been claimed for *such* a "vindication of the Kentucky statesmen," as they themselves, if living, would cordially have approved; or such an one as their descendants would have rejoiced to see. It is more than probable that not one of all the statesmen of Kentucky, who survived to witness the feeble and impotent effort of the Kentucky historian to "vindicate" their fair fame, could retire from the perusal without feelings of grief and mortified pride at the unfortunate attempt.

ART. IV.—THE SOUTH AND THE UNION.*

RESOURCES AND WEALTH OF THE SOUTH, AND WHAT SHE HAS CONTRIBUTED TOWARDS THE GROWTH OF THE NATION.

A CITIZEN of a distant section of the confederacy, which is far nearer to the sun than your own, and is basking in his autumnal rays whilst you are seeking refuge from shivering blasts, I am not ignorant of the people among whom I find myself, and need not now be informed of their growing greatness and power. We have heard of the ceaseless industry, and energy, and enterprise of the *North*, and they have become proverbial with us. We know that your shipping have circumnavigated the globe, and that the white wings of your commerce flap in every haven or islet where Christian or savage man asks in his necessities for bread or broadcloth, and that with a daring grasp you have seized from old Neptune himself the very trident of the seas. We know that the hum of your machinery is never hushed, and that ten thousand times ten thousand fabrics of ingenuity and skill are sent out each day from the granite factories, which, like feudal palaces, frown down upon your water-courses, or from the dense lanes of your metropolitan cities. We know that you have levelled hills, surmounted rivers and valleys, and even arms of the great sea, and intersected on a thousand lines your plains, and hills, and valleys, by those iron ways of civilization, the rail-road; and that your people, with their Pandora's box of "notions," fly hither and thither with a celerity God only knows how great! You dig down into the innermost bowels of the earth, and bring up coal and iron—you hew out of vast mountains huge *granite* blocks, and turn into *profit* even the very curses of God: your winters, which change streams and fountains alike into solid ice, and leave throughout the length and breadth of your wide dominions *literally* "no green thing alive." Your population has magnified and multiplied, and in its denseness been compelled to seek every available outlet, so that if they want a piece of ice at Timbuctoo, or a friction match at Nova Zembla, a Yankee trader will be found present there, and ready to supply the want. Your small towns swell into great ones, and your wonderful *Manhattan* rivals already the leviathans of the old world, which have had the benefit of ages of refinement and civilization.

Thus you are, people of the North; and here, to-day, as I look around me upon this extraordinary museum, which your farmers, your machinists, apprentices, artisans and manufacturers have fabricated in their ingenuity and their enterprise, I seem to see as through a diminishing mirror, and at one glance, your active and busy millions reflected, like that mirror, in which it is fabled one of the Ptolemies could see everything that was enacted in Egypt.

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* The above paper comprises but the corrected *notes* of an Address prepared to be delivered last summer by invitation at the *Fair of the American Institute, New-York*, and is of necessity crude and ill digested.

I will not deny that I am astonished and delighted, and that in my own region I would imitate very much what belongs to your character and career: but at the same time I must be allowed to say, in kindly intention, and with the utmost frankness, I am not ashamed to name that region in the same breath with your own. In the true spirit of my countrymen, I will even go further, and add, so nearly are the good things of this world balanced, and so much do I believe in *substantial* blessings we have the advantage, that I would be very far indeed from changing places with you in the confederacy! The sun shines not alone for the *North*, nor the stars—nor have you the winds, and the rains, and the dews to yourself, though the *snows* be all your own. Your people seem often, however, to think and to act as if it were otherwise, and God had made the world entirely for *them*, and no part of it for us, the "outside barbarians," beyond the "pillars of Hercules," interpreted to mean the landmarks of "Mason and Dixon," the very outposts of all civilization and progress. Think not that we of the *benighted* South, like the British chieftain, when carried in the triumphant procession of the conqueror to Rome, are going to marvel in surveying all of your great and wonderful works, that you have envied us, notwithstanding OUR POOR HUTS on the banks of the Potomac, or by the shores of the Mexican Gulf!

No, no, sirs, the South has nothing to blush for; and no son of hers may hold down his head when any people upon earth are in discussion. Whilst we are surprised, we are not envious of the career of any of our neighbors, being able to show in turn a career of progress and advancement which, when correctly appreciated and understood, must satisfy the minds of the most exacting. We do not shun the comparison, but rather court and invite it; and here, to-day, in your swarming hive, and where I see smiles of proud triumph upon every lip, and hear every voice eloquent in your praises, I take high pleasure in calling up in vivid memory the region which I proudly call my HOME—the beautiful *inner* domestic life and high civilization which marks the society of the SOUTH—the pregnant cane-fields of the Lower Mississippi, the fleecy *gossypium*, overrunning its millions and millions of acres, in rank luxuriance, and at once giving food and raiment to the laboring millions of the old and the new world.

What have we of the plantation states been doing towards the extension of this great confederacy? How have our people been employed in every period of their history? What is now our social and political position, and what does the future promise us?

Fellow-citizens, much misrepresentation of the South, in every point of view, has been but too common, and we are ourselves somewhat at fault in not diffusing correct information which it is in our power to give. Ignorant or bad men have found capital in traducing our institutions and our people, or in underrating our position and importance in the confederation. I have supposed that in the great and liberal city of New-York, and before an institution which professes to be AMERICAN, that this subject of the SOUTH is one of the most interesting that could be brought into discussion, and that hav-

ing invited me, a *Southern* man, to speak, you will freely and willingly hear me for my cause, and be patient that you may hear.

I begin with COMMERCE. It is by our commercial relations that we are known to the rest of the world. This rears for us fleets and navies, and from it come the revenues for the most part of the nation. Before the revolution, or from 1760 to 1769, the southern colonies, with a less population than New-England, New-York and Pennsylvania, exported nearly *five* times as much produce. In the same period Carolina and Georgia exported *twice* the value of New-York, Pennsylvania and New-England. In the years 1821 to 1830, New-York alone exceeded these states. Under the policy of the federal government of protecting American ship-builders and ship owners, who, from the peculiar nature of the country, are from the North, the larger portion of this trade has been attracted away from our ports and concentrated in yours. Yet is the case unaffected, if we may still trace the products of our industry and our skill. Whatever may be the value of the great *foreign* trade of the nation, it is evident the *imports* of the country must only come in exchange for the *exports*, and that, if we had nothing to export, we could get nothing in return. Whence then does this nation seek its *exports?* Let us take the last five years. In 1846 the exports of *Northern* growth or manufacture, and much of this manufacture is out of Southern material, were $27,331,290, whilst those of *Southern* produce, cotton, tobacco, rice, naval stores, &c, were $74,000,000, or *three times as much!* In 1847 the Southern exports were $102,000,000, against the Northern $48,000,000; in 1848, $98,000,000, against $34,000,000; in 1849, $99,000,000 against $32,000,000.

Thus then is it, that the South is lending annually to the North 100 millions of dollars to be used by her as capital in conducting the foreign imports of the country, which nearly all come in your ships and to your cities, and enrich your people in an extraordinary ratio! Mr. Kettell, of New-York, estimates the profits which have been made by northern ship owners upon southern productions, at $40,000,000 in round numbers.

What has the South been doing in GENERAL INDUSTRY? She has carried the production of COTTON, which, at the close of the last century, was thought by Mr. Jay and others never could be an American product, to an extent which has distanced the wildest calculations; in the fineness and excellence of its production, excelled every nation upon earth, monopolizing the industry entirely to herself. Of what avail has been British competition in the East, on a soil adapted to the culture, with labor so cheap that a beggar in this country would starve upon its results, with the fostering regards of ministers and agents? Of what moment have been the rivalries of the Pacha of Egypt, of the West Indies and South America? *Southern enterprise* and industry have triumphed over all, and has, for a quarter of a century, monopolized the staple to themselves. The cotton wool and its fabrics of the South are even sent to China and to India, where the cultivation of the plant seems to have thrived as far back almost as the fabulous age of Fohi, and where it has been

manufactured into fabrics so delicate, that the orientals call them "webs of woven wind."*

It is this *cotton* which employs the millions of New-England, and which throws the grave statistician of Old England, McCulloch, into ecstacies: "Little more than half a century has elapsed since the British cotton manufacture was in its infancy, and it now forms the principal business carried on in the country, affording an advantageous field for the accumulation and employment of millions upon millions of capital, and of thousands and thousands of workmen. The skill and genius by which these astonishing results have been achieved, have been one of the main sources of our power. They have contributed in no common degree to raise the British nation to the high and conspicuous place she now occupies. Nor is it much to say, that it was the wealth and energy derived from the cotton manufacture that bore us triumphantly through the late dreadful wars; and at the same time that it gives us strength to endure burdens that would have crushed our fathers, and could not be supported by any other people."

I will next take the article of SUGAR. In 1804, when Louisiana was purchased from France, her sugar product, we have it on the highest authority, was next to nothing. Indeed, it was only in 1796 that Mr. Bore conceived, as Judge Rost assures us, the desperate purpose of making sugar, amid the general existing prejudice that the juice would not "grain." Crowds from every quarter came to witness his experiment, near New-Orleans. "Gentlemen, it grains," was the exclamation of the sugar-maker; and from the Balize to the Dubuque—from the Wabash to the Yellow-stone—the great, the all-absorbing news of the colony was, that "the juice of the cane had grained in Lower Louisiana."

Half a century has passed since then, and the population of our country increased from 4,000,000 to over 23,000,000 of people, whose consumption of sugar is more than half supplied by the industry of Louisiana, and will, in a few years more, in the rapid progress of the state, be entirely so supplied. The gross product of the last five years has been nearly 1,200,000 hhds., against little over 600,000 hhds. in the previous five years. The crop of 1849–'50 reached nearly 250,000 hhds., of the value, with molasses, &c., of about $15,000,000. Within a year or two, *one hundred new sugar estates will be opened.* What other community can show as favorable results?

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* In the table of supplies we may observe, that while other countries have been nearly *stationary*, our production has *advanced* with great rapidity. In twenty years our average crop has increased from 848,000 bales to 2,351,000, or nearly three hundred fold. If the period of 25 years, from 1825 to 1850, be divided into five equal intervals, the increase for each will be found to be 27, 37, 38, and 15 per cent. In the same time the production of all other countries has only risen from 383,000 to 440,000 bales, having absolutely declined in the last *five* years over 16 per cent. In the first period of five years, the crop of the United States constituted 68 per cent. of the whole! In the second, 74; in the third, 77; in the fourth, 80; and in the fifth, 84 per cent. of the whole. As our bales have increased very much in weight, and are now much larger than those of other countries, our advance has been still greater, and our rank still higher than these figures indicate.—[*Prof. McKay, of Georgia*, and see also the concluding pages of this No. of the Review.]

Our product is already one-sixth the product of the world, and one-half the product of Cuba; and while we have been at work in developing it, Great Britain has seen her rich sugar colonies dwindle into insignificance, and must look abroad even for the supply of her own wants.* The investment in mere *machinery*, &c., with us, is of the most costly kind—not less, perhaps, than $15,000,000; and experiments on the most liberal and largest scale are continually prosecuted. Five years ago, two of our most intelligent citizens went to the Spanish West Indies to examine into the state of the sugar industry, and returned with the gratifying intelligence that they could find nothing there to learn, but that in every respect the Louisianian was in advance. These things we have effected, though

"The slaves by which Cuba canes are cultivated, are, in spite of the suppression of the slave trade, imported from Africa, at a cost which, on an average, does not exceed, for each, the price in Louisiana of a good pair of mules. The climate there permits these slaves to be worked with as few clothes as they were in the habit of wearing in their native country; whilst our slaves are, generally at least, as well fed and clothed as laborers are in Europe. Canes in Cuba ripen during fourteen or eighteen months, and require no plowing, no ditching, and hardly any weeding; their rattoons last fifteen or twenty years. With us, after having tilled our soil in a manner no farmer in the United States would be ashamed of, we must get sugar out of our canes, on an average, eight months after they have come out of the ground, and must re-plant every second year. They grind six months in the year; we can hardly calculate on half that time. With all these disadvantages against us, our planters make fully as many pounds of sugar to the working hand as can be made in Cuba."

But I have other testimony. In 1849, the government sent a special agent, Mr. Fleischman, to examine the sugar industry of Louisiana. This gentleman, on his return, made an elaborate and valuable report, in which he says:

"There is no exaggeration in saying, that there is no sugar-growing country, where all the modern improvements have been more fairly tested and adopted, than in Louisiana, and where such perfect boiling apparatus is used, fulfilling all the conditions that science and experience have pointed out as necessary for obtaining a pure and perfect crystalline sugar, combined with the utmost economy of fuel.

"The success of these improved modes is due to the enterprise and high intelligence of the Louisiana planters, who spare no expense to carry this important branch of agriculture and manufacture to its highest perfection. They have succeeded in making, *strictly from the cane-juice*, sugar of absolute chemical purity, combining perfection of crystal and color. 'This is,

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* SUGAR CROPS IN JAMAICA.

1804	112,163 hhds.	1844	34,444 hhds.
1805	150,352 "	1845	47,926 "
1806	146,601 "	1846	36,223 "
1807	135,203 "	1847	48,554 "
1808	132,333 "	1848	42,212 "

Jamaica in 1850, by JOHN BIGELOW.

indeed, a proud triumph,' says Professor McCulloch, in his valuable report to Congress. 'In the whole range of the chemical arts, I am not aware of another instance where so perfect a result is in like manner immediately attained.'

"What was supposed impossible, has been accomplished by the Louisiana planter, notwithstanding the obstacles of the late maturity of the cane, early frosts, and other incidents occurring there, which casualties are unknown to the sugar planter of the tropical regions. But not only in the raising of cane and the manufacture of sugar, does the Louisiana planter excel: he deserves also commendation for the manner in which he has embellished his country. His leisure hours are devoted to the beautifying of his estates, thus rendering the margin of the Mississippi a continuation of beautiful villages, surrounded by tropical plants and trees."

The same gentleman is transported into ecstacies on descending the lower Mississippi, and viewing the cane-fields of our thriving state:

"I cannot describe the delight I felt when I first entered the state of Louisiana. Its river, the creator of this rich alluvial territory, after having tossed and rolled its mighty waters against the wild shores of the upper country, carrying away and building up, inundating vast tracts, and leaving everywhere traces of its destructive sway, begins at once to slacken its current and keep its turbid stream within the bounds of fertile banks, gliding majestically through highly cultivated plains, covered with the graceful sugar-cane, the uniformity of which is continually diversified by beautiful dwellings, gardens, and the towering chimneys of the sugar-houses, the handsome fronts of which stand forth in the picturesque back ground of the forest, forming an ever-changing scene.

"The traveller who floats in one of the gigantic palaces of the southwest, can from the high deck behold with delight the enchanting scenery the whole day long, and look with regret on the setting sun, which, gradually withdrawing behind the dark outline of the cypress forest, leaves this lovely country reposing under the dark mantle of night. Not less beautiful and well cultivated are the shores of the great bayous and tributaries crossing the state in all directions. I invariably met with that far-famed hospitable welcome peculiarly characteristic of the Southern gentleman and planter."

But this is not all. We have Texas, which already produces as much as Louisiana did in 1822, and which, in many parts, is abundantly adapted to the culture; and Florida, which, in time, will enter the competition for a large share of the results.

I will not pause to consider our *tobacco* and our *rice*, though they cannot be considered contemptible, since the value we annually export in these articles alone is *one-third* the value of the exports of all the North, in every product whatever: nor shall I refer to less important staples.

Let us turn now to the subject of MANUFACTURES. Let the North not suppose she has the monopoly here to herself. A great revolution is in progress. Already the staples of *Southern* manufacture are exhibited at your fairs, which elicit, as your own Reports show, the highest approval and admiration. The product of Southern looms compete in your own markets in the heavier cotton fabrics. The South knows her advantage, and is pushing it with a vigor and

energy which nothing can now arrest. She is building up an Institute at Charleston, which will in time vie with your own, and at its great FAIR, last November, made an exhibition which excited universal surprise and admiration. These fairs will multiply in her limits. Already the amount of cotton which she annually consumes in manufactures is between 80 and 90,000 bales, or about as much as the consumption of the whole North in 1830! Every day our capitalists are investing in new mills, and the planters themselves are urged into the business on the assurance that they can add at the lowest forty dollars to every bale of cotton they produce. In the states of North and South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Tennessee, 130 mills are at work, with 140,000 spindles. These mills have a bounty of from 1½ to 2 cents, on every pound of cotton used, in the saving of transportation and other expenses, and it is exhibited in their profits, which are not behind those of the most favored in the world. All of this we have done in scarcely more than ten years; and no one can consider the subject without arriving at the conclusion, that the South is becoming, and will become, perhaps jointly with the West, the great *cotton manufacturing region of the world.* Were she to work up her 25,000,000 bales of cotton, and receive the profit at $40 each, she would realize from 70 to 100,000 millions; or if the 600,000 bales manufactured in the United States were manufactured in her limits, she would have 50 millions of dollars to add to her present enormous annual products! Hear what Mr. James, a northern man, says upon this subject:

"In the cotton-growing states, fuel for the generation of steam-power is abundant, and its cost is scarcely more than one-tenth part of its cost in New-England. Why then should not the South, even if utterly destitute of water power, manufacture at least a considerable portion of the cotton grown in her own fields? The bare saving in transportation, commission, and fuel, when compared with the amount they cost the manufacturer in New-England, would twice cover the cost of steam-power at the South, including engine, repairs, the pay of engineer, and, in fact, all incidental expenses. I repeat the inquiry then—Why should not the South become the manufacturer of her own product? She would thus retain to herself at least a considerable portion of the many advantages now derived from it by others. For one, the writer can assign no other reason why this is not done, than inattention to, and neglect of the most certain and infallible means to promote the best interests of the community."

And how is it with INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS? It is admitted, from the denser population, the larger commerce, and the less navigation privileges of the North, she has gone very far ahead in the extension of internal improvements. But here again the South has no cause to blush. In all communities strictly *agricultural*, where the people travel little, and where the freight to be transported is necessarily bulky, the greatest discouragements are opposed to the construction of railroads; yet has the South not been entirely inactive. As early as 1828, when there was not, according to the Railroad Journal, "a locomotive in successful operation in America, Stephen Elliott, of

South Carolina, spoke to his fellow-citizens in the following remarkable and *prophetic* manner:

"Thus, then, the products of the western country, whether descending the White River or the mighty stream of the Missouri; whether floating along the current of the Mississippi or its tributary branches, many of them noble rivers, and like the Illinois, flowing through territories of exuberant and inexhaustible fertility; whether descending along the stream of the Ohio itself, or any of its secondary waters, will only have to pause in their descending progress, turn against the current of the Tennessee for two or three days, and then in 40 or 60 hours, according to the rate at which carriages shall be made to travel, may be placed in Augusta on navigable water flowing into the Atlantic, or in another day on continued rail-roads, may be delivered in Charleston or Savannah, in Atlantic ports possessing every advantage that mercantile enterprise may require. Six days, therefore, of uninterrupted travel, may take produce from the confluence of the Ohio and the Mississippi to the shores of the Atlantic, and in 12 days a return cargo may be delivered at the same points!"

Accordingly the Charleston and Hamburg Rail-road was built, which was at the time *the longest rail-road in the world!* Scarcely had it been completed, when the citizens of that great emporium were found still urging onwards their great enterprise of reaching the Ohio or the Mississippi, and they projected the Louisville and Cincinnati Rail-road, over five hundred miles in length, and which had the appearance of the most stupendous project known to human industry! The road failed from the extraordinary revulsions of the times; but as it is now in process of attainment by the addition of successive links to the chain, the great credit of the enterprise must be given to the *South*, and to the practical minds who were engaged upon it. At a time when New-York was communicating with the West through two rivers, two canals, and the lakes; and Philadelphia through the same number of canals, two rail-roads, and eight hundred miles of river, the Charlestonians were at work in substituting, in the language of General Hayne,

"A direct communication between the Western States and the Atlantic by the shortest *route*, a route by which goods will be conveyed in three or four days from Charleston to Cincinnati—a route 340 miles nearer than that by New-York, 240 nearer than that by Philadelphia, and 40 miles nearer than that by Baltimore, even should the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road be carried to Pittsburg."

Let us take these Southern states in their order. We have *Maryland* with her Chesapeake and Ohio Canal and her Chesapeake and Ohio Rail-road, drawing off the produce of the West to Baltimore. We have *Virginia*, with her Virginia and Tennessee Rail-road, intended, when finished, to connect Memphis with Richmond; as also several other roads directed towards the West, to say nothing of the great James River and Kanahwa Canal, which, in the language of Governor Floyd, will soon float to Richmond the flat-boat which has been loaded at the Falls of St. Anthony. In *North-Carolina*, we

have the Wilmington and Weldon Rail-road, 186 miles in length; the Gaston and Raleigh Rail-road, &c., and at the last session of the Legislature was chartered a road from Charlotte to Goldsboro', 210 miles in length, spanning the finest and most improved parts of the state. *South-Carolina*, with her great road to Hamburg, and its Columbia and Camden branches, reaching in length, altogether, over two hundred miles; and her road in construction to Greenville and to Charlotte, N. C., which will add as much more in length, demands an honorable mention, and she will find herself, in two or three years, in immediate Rail-road communication with the Mississippi River at Memphis, and with the Columbia at Nashville, and will give an impetus to Charleston which will make it soon a formidable competitor with the North. *Georgia*, though she may not like the compliment, has made such progress as to be called the "Massachusetts of the South." She has the Macon and Western Road, of 100 miles, at the cost of $1,500,000; the Georgia Road, from Augusta to Atalanta, 171 miles, and cost $3,500,000; Central Road, 191 miles, and cost $3,000,000; Memphis Branch Road, cost $130,000; the Western and Atlantic Road to the Tennessee River, 140 miles, and cost about $4,000,000. Thus have six hundred and sixty miles of rail-roads been constructed and equipped within the last fifteen years, at a cost of about $12,000,000, two-thirds of which has been furnished by individual enterprise and capital, and the rest by the state. *Alabama* is next upon the map. Though she has but one successful road in operation, viz., from Montgomery, she is yet pressing it forward to the Georgia line with commendable zeal. Her citizens are determined not to be outdone in this competition, and they have already, by their contributions, placed their great rail-road from *Mobile to the Ohio River* beyond the possibility of failure; being nearly 500 miles in length, and requiring $6,000,000 or $8,000,000. The grant of public lands lately made by Congress to this road, places it upon a secure basis. There are also other roads projected and chartered in Alabama, of which we may mention one to connect Montgomery with Pensacola; another from Selma to the Tennessee River; a third to connect with the Mississippi Road to Vicksburg; a fourth from Mobile to Girard, thus reducing greatly the travel to New-York. When we come to *Louisiana*, we find a somewhat different state of things from the rest of the South. So small a part of her population is *native* and kindred, and devoted to the advancement of this state, it cannot be wondered she is far *behind*. Latterly, however, a better prospect dawns. Her great city, *New-Orleans*, finds that in the ceaseless race for power and position, she will be distanced by Northern competition, unless efforts equally *herculean* are put forth. She will make these efforts, and the best guaranties for it are, that a company is now organized there for the construction of a rail-road across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, and active interest is taken in a road to Jackson, Miss., and other similar enterprises.

It was my intention, fellow-citizens, to have carried out this subject with many interesting details and statistics; but I have been interrupted in the midst of it by a severe attack of indisposition, last-

ing throughout most of the short time given to me by the society for preparation.

Was I wrong then in saying, that no son of the South need hold down his head when her name is mentioned? Here are six or eight millions of people, occupying fifteen states, including Kentucky and Missouri, who, in addition to the supply of their main wants, are furnishing annually upwards of $100,000,000 in exportable products to the nation, and who it is but fair to say, in the last half century, have produced of such exportable products $3,000,000,000.

How has this money been expended? Ask your artisans, and manufacturers, and merchants, your rail-roads and hotels, your ship-owners and builders, and sailors, do not all of these know what customers the South have been to them? Of these innumerable products of your industry which I see scattered with such a liberal hand around me here, how many are destined for southern markets? And would not the closing of these markets be a greater calamity to you than a war with all of Europe combined?

I suppose, in the season just closed, which has seen your hotels all crowded to their doors, that at least 50,000 southerners, or those supported at the South, have been travelling at the North, for pleasure, for health, &c. Supposing each one of these to have expended but $300, there is an aggregate of $15,000,000, which your people have derived from our travelling propensities in a single year! What is the gross amount of your various products consumed by us, is almost impossible to be given. The figures would astound you if they were.

The South has ever been fondly attached to the Union, and the land which claims the author of the Declaration of American Independence, and the Father of the Republic, both as *her own*, has never been wanting in chivalrous devotion to that Union. Taking the statistics of the revolutionary war, and supposing the average period of enlistment was about the same for all the years at the North and at the South, it will be found that in the first five years, or from 1775 to 1780, when the war was *chiefly at the North*, the southern States supplied each year about *one-third* the whole number of enlistments. As soon, however, as the war extended *southward* and became general, the southern States rapidly advanced, supplying *one-half*, and for 1780, '81, '82, '83, *more than one half of all the enlistments af soldiers!* In the late war with Mexico, whilst the North supplied but 22,136, the South supplied 43,213, or twice as many effective men.

I will not pause to enumerate the statesmen and philosophers, the generals and scholars, who have come from this quarter, and whose fame belongs to the nation. The heritage of their glory and renown should be prized for ever.

It is sometimes said, that the South is deficient in *military strength*. Can that people be very weak at home, who have contributed, as I have shown, so much to the wars of their country, and who gave the *commanders-in-chief* in all of the wars we have had—the revolution, the war of 1815, the late war with Mexico,—Washington, Jackson, Taylor, Scott?

These are the people, fellow-citizens, whom the course of your politicians, demagogues, ill-advised citizens, and even many of the better classes among you, have for the last ten years been estranging from their fellowship with you, and embittering by provocations and taunts, which could not be endured patiently by the tamest and most servile wretches upon earth, much less by a brave, impetuous, and chivalrously honorable people—sensitive to the slightest wrong, generously reciprocating kindnesses—cognizant of their rights and their duties, and brave enough to defend the one, and just enough to observe the other, in all of their relations with their fellow men.

I am aware this is a delicate subject, and you must not suppose I shall be so far wanting in propriety as to carry it out at any length upon *this* occasion. In the connection, however, it was but a *solemn* duty to refer to it.

The total value invested in slave property at the South, cannot be much short of $200,000,000; and if we suppose the value of plantations and all improvements dependent thereon to be as much more, we have $4,000,000,000, a sum one-third as great as the whole foreign trade of the nation with all countries, in exports and imports, and re-exports, from the revolution to the present time, *added together in one great column!*

Let the North then abate the spirit which is doing so much to endanger the Union, and which has induced the Southern States calmly to contemplate its dissolution as a thing which their stern necessities may very soon imperiously dictate to them. Several of these States have already convened in primary assembly, to deliberate upon this gloomy alternative.

As a man solemnly responsible to God for his actions and his words, I say, with my hand upon my heart, if the agitation of this *slave question* be longer continued in Congress, all the power on earth, not the bayonet, nor the cannon, nor fleets, and navies, and armies, can keep the Union together. The highest and holiest of all laws forbids it—that of SELF-DEFENCE and SELF-PROTECTION. No other law can be recognized by us; and a *separate confederation* will be formed, for which there are at the South all the resources of wealth, and power, and opulence!

God grant there may never be such a dire alternative. Gentlemen, let us cultivate a better spirit for each other, intermixing and associating upon terms of friendliness, and reciprocating, in the exchanges of our industry and our enterprise;—mindful of the glorious old times of the republic, when our fathers at Bunker Hill, York Town, or New-Orleans, or in all of the perilous periods of our history, stood shoulder to shoulder, and breast to breast. With such a concord of heart and purpose, what a nation have WE made of this, and what madmen are YOU to urge its *inevitable destruction!*

Already does our empire extend over a domain wider than that of the Cæsars in their proudest days of conquest. From the Island of Brazos, in the Gulf of Mexico, to the Straits of Fuca, on the northern Pacific; from the Aristook valley to the Bay of San Diego, the Union extends its leviathan proportions. The inhabitants of these

extreme points—more distant apart than the old and the new world on the usual routes of travel—are brothers and fellow-citizens, under common laws and with a common destiny. It is as though the Shetland Islands and the Bosphorus, Siberia and the gates of Hercules, were made the outposts of an empire which embraced the *whole of Europe*. For such an empire, Alexander and Cæsar sighed in vain, and Napoleon deluged the world in blood!

ART. V.—SUPPOSITITIOUS REVIEWS.

TIERRA DE GUERRA—NO IV.

And now comes a narration calculated more than any other, in this book of extravagances, to give one bad dreams, or night-mare, or otherwise disagreeably affect a person of delicate nerve, reading after candle-light. Christianity bids us forgive our enemies; which, of course, is the last thing to be looked for from Pagans, especially Pagans given to roasting and devouring *Tehoupals;* and our author boded no good to himself in the care taken to save him from mortal wounds. After some relation of his forebodings, which we, as usual, omit, he resumes his story:

"At dawn, the next morning, I was awakened, and ordered in Tepecohuatlan to leave my apartment; the usual calabash of water and maize being placed outside this time. I understood the meaning of the few words, and obeyed; but when without, I was surprised to see the door behind firmly secured. My first conjecture was, that I was about to be removed; but if so, why was my allowance brought to this place? All doubts were soon settled by the departure of the men without showing any design of taking me with them; and my attention was directly after drawn towards the teocalli, upon and about which were numerous *teopixqui*, making preparation of some sort for what I now saw must be the festival of the idol Quetzacohuatl. As the day advanced, for the first time I saw people in the square, in front of the teocalli; and the number of these gradually increased, until a great multitude, composed entirely of the common classes, occupied the middle space, numerous *coamatlis*, in full dress, arriving in companies, one after the other, and helping to fill the court beyond; that nearest me as yet remained untenanted. By sunrise, both the former, extensive as they were, were densely crowded with spectators, and about that time a strain of wild music from the palace corridor indicated that the *Teocacixi* with his *Teocitli* and the *caciques*, were issuing forth. The hum of voices, cries and laughter in the square now ceased, and all eyes turned in one direction. The procession was obliged to pass but a few yards from my cage, and I thus obtained a full view of the pageant. In front came a rank of *Teocitli*, bearing in their hands slender lances, adorned at the top with tufts of brilliant feathers; they wore close trowsers, or rather leggins, so richly em-

broidered and studded with golden ornaments, that the principal material was not distinguishable; mantles of gay colors, fringed with gold, hung in numerous folds from their shoulders, and on their bared arms and around their necks appeared bracelets, armlets and collars, set thickly with jewels; and in addition, on the heads of some rested open-work circlets, interwoven with tall and variegated plumage. They were, with scarce an exception, well made men, and their erect carriage and whole bearing indicated boldness and pride in no slight degree.

"Immediately after this group, the king was borne in a litter, covered with plates of gold, and overhung by a canopy of feathers and crimson stuff, upon the shoulders of eight *caciques*. His countenance was strongly marked, and rather unpleasing, in spite of the smile with which he spoke to the nobles near him. He sat sideways on the edge of the palanquin, his feet, upon which were feathered boots of soft skins, hanging negligently over; his robe was bordered with pearls, and bracelets, amulets and collar were so studded with precious stones, that each, but for diversity of tints, would have appeared carved from a single enormous gem. He wore no head-dress, the hair being simply drawn back and bound with the red ribbon of distinction; but in his ears were pendants, and attached to the lower lip a green ring, probably of emerald: in place of a sceptre, he held a bunch of fresh flowers, with which he toyed as a lady does with her fan. I have never seen a countenance and figure in which ferocity and masculine vigor were so strangely mingled with effeminacy and voluptuousness.

"His bearers, the *caciques*, were attired much in the same manner as the *Teocitlis*, already described, except that their mantles were embroidered less with gold than feathers, and none were adorned with jewelled collars or bracelets, unless of simple metal; and as these appeared, so did, with little variation, the remainder of the procession, to the number, probably, of three or four hundred, the *Teocitli* taking precedence of the *caciques*, and following in the rear or walking at the side of the *Teocacixi's* litter. Otherwise, no formal order was observed, the greater portion forming groups, the members of which chatted among themselves as they advanced. The music had been left behind, and at an easy pace the gorgeous throng moved by and filled the nearer and more elevated court, the royal palanquin being deposited on a platform or throne in the midst. As soon as this was done, the whole multitude prostrated themselves, and the *Coamatlis* beyond performed the customary act of homage by touching the ground with the right hand, and carrying the left to the mouth.

"I had been so occupied with watching these proceedings, that not until now did Atloe's threat recur to my mind, and the more I mused of the matter the more was I inclined to think that, knowing my horror of their human sacrifices, he or his superiors had fallen upon this means of torment; but I determined, at whatever cost to my feelings, to be a calm spectator of the event which no act of mine could avert, and so disappoint their malice.

"The copper drums on the summit of the teocalli were now loudly beaten; these drums give out, when struck, a sonorous clang, and

beaten in unison, resemble in pitch and continuance the roar of a vast gong. In this roar the people below joined, chanting a hymn, as I suppose, the first words of each couplet of which, ('*Tulunia hululez*,' or some such unintelligible jargon,) from the frequency of the repetition, were lastingly impressed on my memory. At the same time, I noticed the crowd to be violently agitated here and there, and opening into rings, in much the same manner that little whirls indent the surface of swift water. I climbed to the top of the aviary to discover their meaning, and looking down into the nearest circle, descried a man naked and armed with a short knife, with which he wounded himself in the legs and breast, and wherever an incision was made, thrust in sharpened reeds, through which the blood then ran. It was a disgusting spectacle; the contents of the pierced veins from some parts trickling in slow drops, while from others it spouted forth in thin red jets; and round the fanatic those adjacent danced hand in hand, chanting, and urging him on to fresh inflictions. I descended quickly, and had scarcely done so, when a loud shout was set up, and all faces turned simultaneously towards the pyramid. Looking also in that direction, I beheld what would have aroused and sharpened every faculty of observation, had any been then dormant. On the platform, at the foot of the gigantic idol, and in front of a semicircle of soldiers, beyond whom a throng of *teopixqui* were visible, stood Don Lucas, naked to the waist, and carrying on his bare arm a shield, and in his right hand a short spear. He looked around searchingly, without doubt in the hope of seeing me somewhere, and I at once called to him loudly, but my words must have been drowned in the tumult, those closest only paying any attention, and turning with fierce faces and gestures at the sound of my voice. Immediately after, the semicircle widened, and six warriors, armed in similar fashion, entered, and attacked him in a body, while so deep a silence fell upon the concourse, that the clatter of the spears parried upon the shields could distinctly be heard, interrupted only at intervals by cries and yells, as wounds were given or received. Lucas I knew to be brave as man could be; but against such odds, enfeebled, probably, by confinement, and with unfamiliar weapons in his hands, I had no hope of his success. Still, he repeatedly turned aside the thrusts of his assailants, and with a despairing fury more than once scattered them before his impetuous charge; but I could see he was bleeding fast, and momentarily growing weaker, while the remaining four pressed upon him, and the conflict seemed rapidly drawing to an end. He must have been fully aware of the terrible fate awaiting him, for now that all hope was gone, if any had been at the first cherished, he suddenly performed a feat, the whole object of which was, undoubtedly, to frustrate one portion of the enjoyment of the human demons, by causing the extinction of life before his body should pass into the hands of the *Topiltezins* for a sacrifice. With one last, wild effort, he drove the Tepecohuatlans back, turned abruptly, ran to the verge of the terrace, and threw himself headlong to the platform below. This was the work of an instant, and the next a howl of rage arose from every side, while those above crowded to the edge from which he had just leaped.

"I hoped, and prayed from my heart, that he might be dead and beyond the reach of farther torment: but when a party of *teopixquis* hastily descended and raised him, I shuddered to perceive, by their gestures of satisfaction, that life still remained; and of that I had presently thrilling proof.

"The shattered body, instead of being carried to the foot of the idol, was borne swiftly to the ledge above, and with unspeakable fascination my eyes watched every action, without power to turn away or close—a fascination horrible in the extreme, and for which I have no way of accounting. Four *teopixqui* grasped each an arm or leg; the remnants of his clothing were stripped off; his trunk stretched, face upwards, on the altar, and the head held back and down by a fifth; then came a swift blow with a knife, a struggle, and a cry of mortal agony so piercing and protracted, that it seemed to pierce and petrify my very soul, and, for excessive horror, I had no words even to pray. All was frantic uproar below; and this became stunning, when the *Topiltezin* held aloft a reeking heart, and from the uncouth lips of the idol—to which, as already said, a grooved channel led from the surface of the altar—dripped fresh gore, which the soldiers, on the next lower platform, struggled to catch each in the palm of his hand, and sop up with the mouth.

"What afterwards occurred I do not know, for at last my nature could endure no more; and, faint, sick, and dizzy, I released my sustaining hold of the bars, turned away, fell flat on my face in the grass, and with my hands closed both eyes and ears to all that was going on without.

"When this first paroxysm had passed, and I sat up upon the ground, the multitude was fast dispersing, and the king and court had already retired. While still listlessly gazing out, a company of Coamatlis went by, among the last of whom I recognized Atloe. As his eyes met mine, he spoke a word or two to his fellows, and they all returned before the aviary, and calling to a couple of men who carried a bundle rolled in matting on their shoulders, the burthen was set down, on end, close to the grating, and the envelope removed, when I beheld the corpse of Don Maria,—a transverse gash and deep hollow in the left breast. This I saw at a glance; and burying my face again in my palms, fled away, pursued by the jeering laughter of the spectators.

"I was little less than crazed; and, as a natural consequence of the violent excitement and subsequent exposure for the remainder of the day to a tropical sun, a delirious fever ensued, through which an iron constitution alone carried me safely, roughly used as I suppose I was during the illness, to judge from the place wherein I returned to consciousness, and my after treatment."

ART. VI.—COLONEL TEADRIVER, THE REGULATOR.

THE EARLY TIMES OF TEXAS.

THE circumstances of the following story have been thought, by those to whom they have been narrated, worthy of a more permanent record than existed in the memory of the narrator. Whether this be so, or not, two material things of interest will be wanting: the warmth and vividness of *personal* narration, and an acquaintance with the scenes and persons introduced. The part of Texas where they occurred was, at the period, in the chrysalis state of settlement, and full of the excitement which precedes, in all newly settled countries, a quiet conformity to the regular sway of the law. In the commotions invariably produced in the initiatory stages preceding the settlement of a new country, was intermingled, as a type of the times, a disposition in all men to exercise the privilege of making and executing the laws. Whether this arises from the fact of men's minds being in a feverish excitement, growing out of the successive steps of settlement, and in no condition to await the guarded steps of the law; or whether the times actually require a speed and quickness of retribution to follow upon the heels of the offence, or not, it is quite certain that in all new communities, a resort to *Lynch law* is not only tolerated with complacence, incomprehensible to the quiet citizens of well organized communities, but is looked to with a species of approbation, which is no bad proof that, though repugnant to all idea of *legal* liberty and security, it is nevertheless an extreme remedy, *suitable* to the *vulnus immedicabile*, to which it is usually applied. In the year 183– the county of Brazoria presented a scene of excitement and confusion, in striking contrast to the quiet condition of its present law-loving and law-abiding citizens. The monetary crash which had occurred in the United States, and with particular severity in some of the Southern States, had carried to that *El Dorado* of bankrupts and debtors, a class of population at no time, and under no circumstances, very well disposed to maintain the quiet and peaceful administration of the laws. At the time to which allusion is now made, a widow lady, whose husband had died the preceding summer, lived upon what was called the Ridge-road, connecting two towns in that county which shall be nameless. This lady was the mistress of a servant of noted truthfulness and fidelity, whom she sent out one Saturday evening to gather muscadines. The muscadine is a large wild grape which grows in the bottoms of the little creeks, and in the heads of hollows. Taking root in the earth, this vine will frequently mount to the top of lofty trees, and cover them with a thick umbrella-shaped net-work of vines and leaves. It is a vine resembling the famed scuppernong, from which such excellent wine is made at the South. An old dwarf of an iron-wood tree, covered with muscadines, grew upon the side of the road, and overhung it, in the head of a hollow which made off from the road at right angles. This

road was called the Ridge-road, in contradistinction from the valley road, and because the water which fell into it frequently parted company in the middle, and sought the Gulf in opposite directions. This faithful boy, Bob, had but just safely ensconced himself among the vines, at the top of the tree, and was pulling the grapes, when he discovered a gentleman on horseback ride immediately under the tree on the way to town. Some short time afterwards he discovered a pedestrian pursuing the same road. When he had approached nearly under the tree in which Bob was so securely hid, he stopped, and picked up what appeared to be, and what afterwards proved to be, a pocket-book containing money in bank bills to a considerable amount. Bob had not previously seen it. The pedestrian had on a broad-brimmed, white fur hat, and wore a red flannel shirt and corduroy pantaloons. His features were striking, and he had a full view of them. He opened the pocket-book, carefully examined it, took from it what appeared to be a roll of bank bills, folded it up again carefully, gave a keen and scrutinizing glance up and down the road, laid the pocket-book in the road, hastily passed down the hollow under the tree, and was soon out of sight. Pursuing the course he took, he would reach the valley road in seven or eight miles, which he could quietly pass along into town. Stricken with terror and alarm, of course, was the faithful boy. Should the owner return, whom he did not doubt was the horseman, nothing appeared more natural to Bob, than that he would be taxed with purloining the money. While intent upon the obvious danger attending his situation, and the noise of the steps of the departed thief upon the dry and crisp leaves had scarcely died away, Bob discovered another person, with a small bundle on his shoulder, on foot, also going into town. He came up to where the pocket-book was lying, picked it up naturally enough, and pursued his way, examining its contents as he walked along. He had not gone more than a hundred yards, when he was met by the returning owner. It was still in the hands of the pedestrian. An inquiry and altercation ensued, attended with high words and violent gesticulation; and while engaged in the dispute, the rider turned his horse and they both proceeded together towards town. The town at that time was in the hands of the *Regulators.* The captain of the Regulators was one of the most singular men whom I ever knew. He was a married man, and had a daughter just grown. I knew him well, and was intimate in his family. He was not naturally a bad man, but he had acquired badness in a certain sense. He was a man of desperate courage: cool in danger, and utterly beyond all influence of fear. He was singular in this respect, that one half of his left eye, in paroxysms of rage, assumed a deeper hue, and acquired a color perceptibly different from the clear blue of the other. He was a tall man, but extremely muscular nevertheless. His daughter had the most wonderful influence over him, while his wife apparently had none. What was not the least singular in his character and conduct, while in his family, or while enjoying the pleasures of social intercourse, he was never without a tenpenny nail in his hands. Strange as this may appear, it is strictly true.

This nail was connected in a singular manner, what I was never fully enabled to unravel until many years after his death, with some passage in the history of his wife. Often have I seen her shrink back abashed; often have I seen her cower under its magic influence, whenever, in an unguarded moment, she gave way to any unusual gayety, in which she but seldom indulged: her husband would quietly, but significantly draw her attention to it. The spirit of her gayety fled in a moment. The only time that he was ever known to speak angrily to his daughter, was upon a memorable occasion, when she made some inquiry into the history of the nail. His eye changed color, and the lid drooped, and he spoke a sharp and bitter word to her, which sealed her lips for ever on that subject. He was familiarly called the "colonel." His then name was Colonel Catamount Teadriver. He had removed from one of the Southern states of the Union, and was then opening a new place near town.

Another singularity was, that he used phrases in themselves unmeaning, and different from those employed by other men. Bob was in a situation by no means enviable. He was in possession of a secret which was improper and disquieting to keep, and by no means unattended with danger to disclose. He and his mistress may probably have greatly magnified his dangerous situation; but it was not improbable at all, that, in those troublous times, his connection with the lost money might have constituted a shade of suspicion sufficient to have provoked a resort to very well-known and very violent measures to extort the truth. It was not out of the range of chances that Bob, if he meddled in the matter, might be brought to taste the quality of the approved method. There was a lawyer in town who was in the habit of attending to her legal business. The widow sent Bob in to him on the following Tuesday, for counsel and advice. When Bob reached town, the state of facts were as follows:—The gentleman who had lost the money was a resident of Kentucky, then in Texas investing his money in Texas lands. He had accompanied the supposed thief into town, the one accusing and the other denying. Col. Teadriver had been secretly applied to, to settle the difficulty. It was a case the law could not reach. All the facts of the case had been submitted to the appropriate committees. They had taken the case in hand, and had adjudged the party accused *guilty*. His name was Carroll, by profession a schoolmaster; red-headed and pug-nosed. He had been dismissed from a situation below for dissipation, and was then on his way to town, and places above, in search of a school. When Col. Teadriver first saw Carroll his eye was observed to change color, and the lid to droop. The statement of the Kentuckian made things look very dark against him. The belief of the Kentuckian in his guilt, was firm and unfaltering. His clearness of conviction gave point and coloring to his testimony. He stated that he had lost his money, and accounted very rationally for the way in which it was lost. He stated, that immediately upon discovering his loss, which was after a ride of some seven or eight miles, he returned in search of it, knowing that it must have been lost in the last hour; that on the return, he discovered his pocket-book in the hands of Carroll, who

concealed it hastily upon observing his approach; that when questioned in regard to it, he manifested hesitancy and reluctance in giving it up. Upon being charged with abstracting the money, he had given the strongest indications of guilt; had stammered; had turned ashy white; made contradictory statements; had blustered, and then had shown the white feather. Carroll had passed through two committees, and had *confessed* his guilt. A party was prepared to start early the next morning to the place where he said he had hid the money. Pardon, in the event of confession, had been promised him. He was then in the upper room of the tavern, where all could see him who wished; and he was securely chained. He excited no compassion, though a most pitiable object. The crowd saw the villain in his looks. All thought him a finished, but a talented villain. The affair was matter of familiar conversation; it was the subject of the most engrossing interest; the talk at every corner and in every group. The manner of Carroll; his ingenious casuistry; his developement of mind; his exhibitions of skill in defence; his high powers of reasoning upon the great questions of popular and religious controversy; the reputed ease with which he baffled the arguments of the country divines who plied him with the consolations of their respective creeds, for he was a *fatalist:* these were the themes of general conversation, and generally of high commendation. The mental development was certainly a new thing in Carroll. I have since accounted for it, upon the ground of unnatural intellectual excitement, produced, in his case, by the severe bodily suffering which he had undergone, so that, in a measure, his body had ceased to suffer; that the suppression of the animal nature, the effect of the terrible castigation which he had received, had preternaturally evolved, or exalted the mental. His arguments were adorned with rich imagery, copious illustration, and subtle distinctions; his thoughts seemed to burn and breathe, though under a cloud of dark skepticism which, like the ghost of Banquo, would not down. So far as I know, these powers were never subsequently developed in him in anything approaching a tithe of their present vivacity. The effect of bodily castigations to subdue the animal and to bring out the intellectual element of the mixed nature of man, may be the reason and the rationale why, in ancient times, hair shirts were worn, greaves of iron upon the person endured, and severe castigations voluntarily inflicted, a question which may lead to interesting philosophical investigations. It may, doubtless, be a matter of surprise to the sober and quiet citizens of that delightful county now, as it may surprise the citizens of almost every other county, to learn what calm indifference, nay, what seeming forgetfulness, of the utility or existence of such a thing as the regular administration of justice, then marked the public judgment. But this state of the public mind was characteristic of the period of time to which I now refer. It was cotemporaneous with the *Murrell* excitement. The two were made to hinge together. When the yellow fever prevails as an epidemic, every other disease seems inclined to run into it, and assume its type. So, during the Murrell excitement, every crime was connected with it. Carroll, *under the lash*, had con-

fessed himself a member of that fraternity. He had even furnished a list of his confederates. He had given a graphic account of instances of successful villany. In the cause of Murrell, he was a very Othello. He, too, had his "hair-breadth 'scapes in the imminent deadly breach." His countenance would be lit up with a sublime but unearthly animation and excitement while dilating to gaping listeners upon these fanciful pictures of fictitious crime. The *Regulators* were under a complete system. They were divided into three departments or committees:—No. 1 was the *investigating* committee, No. 2 was the *pardoning* committee, and No. 3 was the *executing* committee. It was a rule of the order that these several committees were independent of each other. No. 2 was not bound by the promises of No. 1; No. 3 was not bound by the promises of No. 2. This rule was adopted that those who, upon *proper investigation*, were fully proved to belong to the Murrell gang by Committee No. 2, by whom the promise of pardon had been held out to extract confession, might safely be executed by Committee No. 3, which was under no kind of obligation to observe the promises of Committee No. 2. The morale of the thing was, that any man who was so intensely debased and wicked as to be engaged in the purpose commonly attributed to Murrell, had no just claim to the observance of the common principles of justice upon the part of any member of the community, against whose peace and security he was plotting so dangerously. Carroll had made his confession to Committee No. 2, by whom, in consideration thereof, he had been promised pardon, and was now in the hands of Committee No. 3 for execution. He did not, however, know it. Had he known it, it might have been a damper, doubtless, upon his high exuberance of mental power, and upon the sprightliness of his prurient fancy. Very soon after Bob had reached town, he was struck with amazement upon beholding the gentleman with the broad-brimmed white fur hat, flannel shirt, and corduroy breeches, a calm and quiet observer of the course of events—externally calm and quiet in the midst of the general excitement. He was the best listener in town. He listened to every body, and he listened to every thing, but *but he himself had nothing* to say. He walked in an apparent trance. He would get out of every body's way, and from every group he was careful not to be the last to depart. A meeker or a more innocent-looking man did not sadden the town with a more demure visage; he seemed to be the walking type of one between whom and earth, and all its delights and pleasures, the last link had been broken. Of him truly might Moore have said—"He felt like one who treads alone some banquet hall deserted." He looked the incarnation of the sublime principle of the Christian faith, not to lay up for one's self "treasures upon earth." The widow's lawyer was a one-eyed gentleman, of great sagacity and unusual powers of eloquence. Physically he was a frail man, but few men had more influence. He was feared, and consequently respected; for, in addition to courage, his eloquence was a thing to be feared, either in defence or prosecution. With the exception of the blemish of the eye, he was quite handsome, and had a very feminine appearance. His one eye was a ball of fire, and his

thin and delicate lips were wreathed in scorn while engaged in the eloquent task of connecting link with link in the chain of testimony or argument, to tell upon the fate of some of the luckless sons of crime. He heard Bob's story patiently and attentively. At the close of it, his breast heaved with deep and painful emotion. He ejaculated, "The tide is too strong: we must wait on Time." He despatched a messenger for Colonel Teadriver. When the Colonel arrived, and was told that Carroll was innocent, his exclamation was, "Great parted creation!" When told that red flannel shirt and corduroy breeches was the guilty party, his exclamation was, "Great parted creation!" This was the Colonel's usual exclamation when moved by any sudden and surprising information. A warm controversy arose between Colonel Teadriver and the lawyer, as to the proper course to be pursued with regard to Corduroy pantaloons. "I must have the management of that demure chap," said the Colonel; "as the captain of 1, 2, and 3, it must be my province to hand him over to the tender mercies of No. 3." "Had you not better pass him through the sieve of the three?" said the lawyer. "Well enough," said the Colonel, a little abashed, "but death, without judge or jury, would not be too good for such a wolf in sheep's clothing." The lawyer then remarked that they were about to act upon testimony none of the best. "Colonel, it is *negro* testimony; and another thing you must remember, Colonel—that your method of arriving at the truth has not been the most successful and satisfactory in the case of Carroll. The Committee must have hit *some* blows, to make the fool give utterance to such a falsehood." The Colonel winced under this remark, for subsequent events proved that he was satisfied Carroll was guiltless from the beginning, and that it never was his intention to permit him to be executed. The lawyer continued, "Let *me* rule in this case. The man is a bad man: that can't be denied. But there are many worse men. I judge him not to be wholly corrupt, by his hanging about when he might so easily have escaped. The fact that he seems to be spell-bound, by an interest in the event of this trial, and in the fate of Carroll, which seems to master his sense of prudence and fear alike—a fascination which seems to spring from the better principles of his nature, binding him by instinctive interest in the fate of one whom he has so cruelly wronged—is in his favor, certainly." Upon one point the Colonel and the lawyer were at issue. The lawyer believed that the worst men were not wholly corrupt. The Colonel believed that the best men were hypocrites. "Let me suggest in this matter," said the lawyer. "Let us play experimenters in the science of moral philosophy. Let us make Corduroy's *conscience* convict him. If I succeed, it will prove my theory. If I fail, it will prove yours. Let us put Carroll upon his trial again publicly. Corduroy will appear. Do you, Colonel, defend Carroll. Proclaim your conviction that Carroll is *innocent*. Proclaim your conviction that the guilty man is present. Paint his guilt, narrate the circumstances of the theft, and I'll warrant Corduroy will give in, without the intervention of Committee 1, 2 or 3."

"Well, Squire, I yield to you in this matter; but *great parted crea-*

tion! should he escape in the mean time! He has been the cause of my using severe measures upon an innocent man." And the half of the Colonel's eye, instead of growing dark, gave a gleam of satisfaction at the recollection. *He felt his nail in his pocket.* The trial was fixed for the next day. The room was crowded, as usual. Corduroy was there, in all his "down-trodden deadness of mien," as Sidney Smith would say: his demure quietness of assumed abstraction. The Colonel was at his side, when he commenced his harangue. He stated "he was fearful that great injustice had been done to Carroll." Carroll turned upon him a quick and agitated look. It betokened the first risings of the germ of revenge whose denouement was so fatal to the speaker e'er the next year ran out. He said, "that if he had been wrongfully punished, a deep atonement was due him. If any person in this assembly has had the means of rescuing an innocent man from the deep severity of the punishment which had been inflicted upon Carroll, the hand and the knife were now close together (and the Colonel put his hand in his bosom) which would carry to *his* heart the doom of just retribution."

As this sentence was pronounced with considerable emphasis; that ball of fire, the one eye of the experimenting, philosophic lawyer, was fixed in intent gaze upon Corduroy. He evidently quailed under it. "If any man," continued the Colonel, "has been base enough to do the deed, and attend the proceedings of this honorable Committee, and see this honorable body proceed to sentence of death against an *innocent* man, without using any means to prevent so foul a wrong, he did not believe he could escape the judgment of heaven; he was very sure he could not escape judgment from his hand, though he had to pursue him to the coast of Madagascar. But," continued the Colonel, "what is the use of multiplying words? *I know that there is such a man.* I know that he is in *this* room! I will tell him something which he thinks I do not know. He who stole the money came to the pocket-book before Carroll. He stood in the road; he opened it; he saw the roll of bills; he put them in his pocket; he folded the pocket-book up again, and replaced it in the road—passed hastily down a hollow, entered the valley road, and came into town. I tell that man that confession may yet save his life. Now I wish all to hear what I am going to say. I bespeak careful attention. You see this knife," drawing a formidable and gleaming weapon from his bosom. "I raise it aloft." He suited the action to the word; he raised it over his head. "If this guilty wretch does not come forward, acknowledge his guilt, and implore pardon before my arm falls to my side, the very moment afterwards this knife shall reach his heart."

His arm began slowly and steadily to fall. The most intense excitement pervaded the spectators. The eye of the lawyer was fixed with intense and speculative interest upon Corduroy. The knife continued gradually to fall. The eye of the Colonel began to show more distinctly the change of color indicative of high-wrought excitement. Corduroy began to show the tremor of guilt. He could stand it no longer. Before the knife had completed the semicircle, with a convulsive groan and agonizing cry, Corduroy fell at the feet of the

Colonel. A gleam of satisfaction shot across the visage of the speculative lawyer. It had gone far to establish his favorite theory. So intense was the passion of the Colonel, that almost involuntarily, so much was he under its maddening mastery, he was about to plunge the knife into the body of the fallen man, and was prevented by some friends among the bystanders, who read aright the fell purpose of the madman. His first words of recovery were, "Great parted creation!" This broke the spell. Some laughed, and some wept. The Committee took charge of Corduroy. When he was taken up, he looked wrinkled with age, so great had been his mental terror.

By degrees the room became nearly empty. Carroll continued to occupy his seat, spoken to by no one, disturbed by no one. All shunned him, because he had been wronged by all. He was a living and breathing monument of shame to all. A thrill of revulsion was caught up, and ran through the town. Carroll continued to sit the picture of blank stupefaction. In the opposite corner sat the Kentuckian, plunged in the wild vortex of compunctious visitings of conscience—gnawing at his heart, and completely unmanning him. Suddenly, seeming to recover consciousness, with eyes streaming with tears, he rose from his seat and knelt at the feet of Carroll. "As God's my judge," said he, "it shall be made up to you." Then, after a pause, in which he seemed to think that if he had the spirit of a man, it had been too deeply shocked and driven in, to look for or expect such a result, he added, "if it is in my power. You must go home with me."

Accordingly, in a day or two afterwards, they departed for Kentucky in company. Corduroy's life was spared. His punishment was the severer, because he was the scape-goat upon which the malignant spirits of the town wreaked their vengeance, to allay thereby, in a measure, their own guilty feeling of shame at the foul wrong they had inflicted upon Carroll. He escaped with his life, but that was all. He was asked no questions. The yellow fever of Murrelism died with Carroll's departure. The false, and yet extremely plausible confessions, which had been extracted from Carroll, under the agonizing torture of the lash, had destroyed all confidence in *any* confession obtained in that way. And it gave so severe a blow to the power of the *Regulators*, that they became as suddenly hated and despised, as they had before been feared and respected. Amid much evil, they had done some good.

Some time during the ensuing fall, the Colonel was found dead near a creek, not many miles from his place, and not very far from the scene of the theft. He had been rifled, or pistoled. The ball, a remarkably small one, had entered his right temple. I was living in the town at the time. It became my business, in the course of time, to wind up his saffairs. It was generally believed that he had fallen a victim to the revenge of Carroll. There were some circumstances favoring this idea, though nothing which the legal tribunals could reach. It was known that the time of Carroll, in Kentucky, was occupied constantly in the practice of pistol-shooting. The lawyer, whom I believed to have been a pure man, and who died a few years after-

wards with consumption, made, upon one occasion, a singular disclosure to me. He said that he was present when Carroll and the Colonel first met, previous to his being given up to one of the Committees. He said that he noticed obvious mutual recognition; and he thought he perceived the stricken sense of guilt in the one, and the gleam of revenge in the other. As administrator of the estate of the Colonel, two very remarkable letters fell into my hands. One was explanatory of the affair of the ten-penny nail, and the other I will here give. The first has interest enough to be reserved for another occasion. This one indicates the peculiar turn of the Colonel's mind. It had neither date nor name, but was in the Colonel's handwriting. It was as follows:

"DEAR GEORGE:—I should not have thought that you were in earnest, had you not told me so in the letter which you wrote me on the 13th. I believe that you are not jesting, only because you say that you are serious. You say it is divine to forgive. Would it not have been more merciful to have cut down with the first offence, and render forgiveness unnecessary? But enough of this. I thought that I had been at the pains to teach you better, and had inculcated in you, during the long intercourse of friendship between us, better feelings and better principles than those you seem to entertain in your communication. I find that my wise instructions and sage counsels have, I fear, been thrown away. Indeed, the matter shakes my faith in the worth and excellence of the schooling through which it has been my pleasure to carry you for so many years of patient toil and watchful industry.

"In vain have you been raised "at the feet of Gamaliel." If I have sought to sow one seed—if I have endeavored to inculcate one principle in your mind above another—if I have striven to make flourish one germ of thought in you more luxuriantly, it has been, *deference to the softer sex.* If you so regard my teaching, "in the green tree," what may I not expect in the "dry?" Great parted creation! George, if you grow up to mature years with your present thoughts and feelings, I cannot answer for the consequences. I am afraid you will be lost. Is it possible that I have to begin again with you in Chesterfield, carry you through all of Sir Walter Scott's novels, into the Crusaders and the Spanish wars of the Moors, up to Cleopatra and Antony, and then down again through the French school of polite men, and the Spanish "*inamoradores feminarium,*" by way of Milton's Paradise Lost to Goodrich's First Lessons for Beginners, in the modern school of politeness. Such a thought would be death to me. I could not survive it. My locks would whiten in an hour. How often has it been my pleasure to teach you that you cannot be too deferential to the fair sex? *Bootsey Poon*"—(that was the name the Colonel called his daughter Ellen)—"Bootsey Poon blames you in this matter as much as I do. The true test of the gentleman is the rigid observance of the sanctity of the domestic hearth. The true scoundrel, George, is he who, under the guise of friendship, will whisper love, in violation and disregard of the covenants of the altar. Deference to the fair sex is due from all gentlemen, but his deference should not o'erstep the lines of virtue. The virtues cluster around the domestic altar;—who makes an inroad there, is worse than a devil. The forewarned, George, are forearmed. Bootsey Poon has a sad story to tell you. We shall expect you in a month."

The Colonel, in early life, had been filled with the milk of human

kindness. His intercourse with the world soured him;—the history of the *ten-penny nail* nearly maddened him. The principle in that letter to George, had it been adopted, might have saved him. He there sought to stanch a fountain of bitter waters, that in after years embittered his own life. He sacrificed himself for his daughter. He renounced honor, and self-respect, and personal dignity, for Bootsey Poon. He loved and respected but one thing in the world. That was his daughter. She was worthy of his love. She was, indeed, a "line of poetry in a world of prose." Dearly was he loved in return by that high-souled, and self-sacrificing, and charming lady. But he loved unwisely as a father. IBREDIX.

Mississippi.

[We trust the author will go on and finish immediately this sketch, which is so full of deep and lively interest.—*Editor.*]

ART. VII.—THOUGHTS ON A RAIL-ROAD SYSTEM FOR NEW-ORLEANS.

THE following paper, from the pen of a distinguished engineer, *Thomas Butt Hewson*, Esq., who has been an able collaborator in the pages of the *Rail-Road Journal*, is one of the most masterly exhibitions of the *true* internal improvement necessities of our region, that has ever been prepared for the press. The author shows, with a few bold strokes, the eminently dangerous position which New-Orleans now occupies, with reference to Western commerce, and the almost *certainty* of a speedy decadence of her propensity, already begun, unless the tocsin be sounded, and our citizens aroused from their sleep of death. Up, up, ye men of capital, ye men of influence and enterprise, for it is no *common* danger that menaces. The hour is even NOW. Though the remote contingency of *Tehuantepec* be achieved, "the summer for us is nearly past—the harvest ended—*we are not saved!*"

We believe, that the suggestions of Mr. Hewson's communication to our pages will, if adopted, be worth more to New-Orleans than the discovery of the mines of California to the American people; and we call upon our brethren of the press in the city and out of it, to *republish* this article, and to urge its subject unceasingly upon their readers. We have a promise from Mr. Hewson, who is now employed as an engineer in developing the improvements of the West, that he will furnish to our pages a series of these *invaluable* contributions.—[EDITOR.]

The price of produce is made up of the three items, the proceeds of the merchant, of the carrier, and of the producer: The sum received by the producer of an article is therefore the balance remaining, after deducting from the price of the article the sum paid for commission and transport; consequently every cent saved on transport is a cent gained on production; and hence *economy of transit—all else being equal—rules the direction of trade.*

Again: every city has its own commercial basin; and this basin being defined by the economy of transit—all else being equal—trade, like water falling on a ridge, flows in opposite directions on either side of its limits. As in nature a number of minor rain-basins go to form the basin of a great drainage outlet, so also in trade a number of interior trade-basins go to form the basin of a great commercial outlet. The sum of the commerce of a seaboard city is regulated therefore by the number and extent of the interior cities representing its several tributary basins; *to draw off the tribute of one of those cities or basins, is to diminish the commerce of the original outlet by a corresponding amount.*—If the Chattanooga Rail-road draw off the business of Nashville to Charleston, the commerce of New-Orleans is diminished by an amount corresponding to the trade of the Nashville basin. On the other hand, *to extend the area tributary to one of her interior cities, to increase its production or stimulate its industry, is a gain to that amount to the business of the seaboard city.* For example, to extend the area tributary to the city of Natchez or to the city of Memphis, is a gain to the amount of the extension by the city of New-Orleans.

Economy of transit ruling the direction of business, trade-basins *have* been established by a comparison of the cost of transit on rivers and common roads: the result of this comparison has sketched out the relations under which the South-Western country stands at this present time to South-Western cities. But now a new element is about to enter into the case:—the question lies henceforth between rivers and *rail-roads;* and consequently under the influence of this new basis of comparison, the relations of South-Western trade will in all cases be considerably modified, in many cases be totally changed. Claysville, in North Alabama, sends its produce by way of the Tennessee, the Ohio, the Mississippi, a distance of 1600 miles, to New-Orleans; the choice lying between that means of transport on the one hand, and on the other hand a haulage to Mobile over some 270 miles of common road. But assuming the completion of the rail-road from Claysville to Mobile, (Selma and Tennessee road,) the choice lying then between 1600 miles of inferior navigation, and 270 miles of rail-road; the business entering at Claysville will undoubtedly flow to Mobile. Hydrographical position has ruled in the matter up to this moment; but *for the future, the prosperity of cities will be in more intimate accordance with geographical position.* Mobile has continued almost a village, with upwards of 100,000 square miles of productive country behind her; but now, under the influence of this new agent of trade, she is about to gather in her store-houses not only the cotton of Alabama, but perhaps even the corn of Kentucky.

Rail-roads are indeed a powerful means of altering the direction of trade; but as they derive their power by effecting an economy of transit, they lose it at the point, where this economy ends. A rail-road fails to exert on the general trade of a district any influence, when in competition with a good navigable river, unless the saving in distance be sufficient to cover the excess in freight: if transport

(freight, risk, time, &c.) be four times as much per mile on a rail-road as on a river, general trade will follow the river, unless its windings amount to a mileage nearly quadruple that of the rail-road.

From New-Orleans the Mississippi is always safe and open for the largest boats as far as Memphis: the dangers and obstructions of the river commence immediately above Memphis. Now, for general trade, we might, after taking into consideration the difference of time and safety in the one case, and the freightage in the other, rate the advantages of so fine a navigation as the Mississippi between New-Orleans and Memphis, in comparison with a rail-road of the same length, as four to one. The economy of transport between these two points consequently identifies them for ever; and makes the growth of Memphis a direct accession to the growth of New-Orleans. *To build up Memphis, is, therefore, to build up New-Orleans. So also on the same grounds with Natchez: her progress is New-Orleans progress.*

Hydrographical relations alone have regulated the prosperity of New-Orleans; but now, that rail-roads enter into the question, New-Orleans is thrown back upon geographical relations. A lake cutting her off from the interior—she sits out on a sea-girt peninsula, in a position of serious geographical disadvantage. Indeed, so serious is this disadvantage, that the city of Jackson, a point one hundred and fifty miles due north of New-Orleans, can, though lying one hundred miles more westerly than Mobile, be operated on by the latter city with some ten or fifteen miles of rail-road less than that required for the same purpose by New-Orleans. But, although New-Orleans has, of herself, no advantage in this respect, a wise policy on the part of her citizens may enable her (if I may use such an expression) *to borrow a position*. The Mississippi river, by placing her within a distance equivalent to 200 miles of rail-road from Memphis and 75 miles of rail-road from Natchez, may be made to give New-Orleans the geographical advantages of a city situated, in the latter case, at the head of a bay some 30 miles in the interior; and in the case of Memphis, at the head of a bay some 130 miles in the interior. This course will, therefore, be a master-stroke in her rail-road enterprise. If, indeed, rail-roads could possibly divert the trade of the Mississippi at Vicksburgh, the distance and difficulties to be overcome by a rail-road from that point to New-Orleans, would enable Mobile, in virtue of lower freights, to carry off the trade of the Mississippi at Vicksburgh in the teeth of the rail-road competition of New-Orleans. Rail-roads running directly from New-Orleans into the interior, throw her back on her geographical relations; whereas, besides maintaining much of her hydrographical advantages, she may also combine with these all the benefits of a powerful geographical position, by throwing out lines of rail-roads from her inalienable tributary—Memphis or Natchez—to the farthest limits of her basin. This is the true, and must be the triumphant, policy of New-Orleans. Memphis rail-roads judiciously conceived, are emphatically and pre-eminently New-Orleans rail-roads. The same holds, on the same grounds, of Natchez rail-roads.

The present basin of New-Orleans is being acted on with rail-roads

by all the cities of the seaboard from New-York to Mobile. South of the Ohio, the roads of Charleston are at work; and those of Mobile will soon be in operation. Her domain is being thus parcelled out amongst rivals; yet New-Orleans looks on with as much indifference as though her commercial greatness were inalienable. It may be profitable to inquire here, whether the greatness of New-Orleans is, after all, hedged round with a divinity as unapproachable as that of the bird of ancient idolatry, whose feathers no one should dare presume to ruffle.

Charleston can, with 400 miles of rail-road, operate on any point of the curve, La Fayette (Ga.), Washington (Tenn.), Kingston (Tenn.), Clinton (Tenn.): Mobile can, with the same length of road, operate along the curve, Camden (Tenn.), Reynoldsburgh (Tenn.), Milton (Tenn), Pikeville (Tenn.), Columbus (Tenn.); and therefore, assuming the two markets equally good, check the influence of the 400 miles of road from Charleston, at a point between Washington (Tenn.) and Calhoun (Tenn.): a circle of 500 miles radius from Charleston, and another of 500 miles from Mobile, intersect each other near Greensburgh in Kentucky. A circle of 300 miles radius from Savannah will intersect a circle of the same radius from Mobile at a point near Cedartown in Georgia. Consequently, all these being neutral points, a line connecting Cedartown in Georgia, Calhoun in Tennessee, and Greensburgh in Kentucky, will indicate, *subject to alterations arising from the character of the competing markets*, the western limits of the Charleston and Savannah basins; the trade east of this line following the road to either of those cities; the trade west of it—assuming no other competition—flowing to Mobile. If the quotations for cotton be assumed one-eighth of a cent per lb. higher in Charleston than in Mobile, this difference in favor of Charleston will remove the limits of its basin about 75 miles west of the limits laid down here. If the difference be one-fourth cent in favor of Charleston, the limits will stand 75 miles still more westerly; but in both cases the physical difficulties met in penetrating to the valley of the Tennessee, &c., may be estimated as a draw-back on this increased length to the amount of some 40 miles. However, it may be safely concluded, that although Charleston cannot, as will be shown by-and-by, compete with New-Orleans at Nashville, the Charleston rail-road must always, as at present, draw off a large portion of the trade of Eastern Tennessee from New-Orleans.

The western and northern limits of the Mobile basin are regulated by competition with New-Orleans. Above Memphis, the rivers brought in competition on the part of New-Orleans with the rail-roads of Mobile, are such inferior navigations—"frozen one-half the year, and dry the other"—that in discussing the question of the northern and western limits of Mobile basin, it were better to suppose New-Orleans disputing her trade under the most favorable circumstances, namely, as shown in the outset, a rail-road from Memphis.

Memphis, being removed from New-Orleans a distance equivalent in cost of transit to 200 miles of rail-road, possesses all the commercial advantages of a point situated on a rail-road 200 miles to the north

of Mobile; and, in these reasonings, may be considered as situated at a point within 200 miles by rail-road from New-Orleans. A circle, which may be reached by 300 miles of road from Mobile, passes through Jefferson (Ala.), Huntsville (Ala.), Florence (Ala.), De Kalb (Ala.): a circle that may be reached by 100 miles of rail-road from Memphis—equivalent to 300 miles of rail-road from New-Orleans—passes through Trenton (Tenn.), Lexington (Tenn.), Purdy (Tenn.), &c., and intersects the former circle at Eastport (Tenn.) The circle of 400 miles of rail-road from Mobile, and of 200 miles of rail-road from Memphis, intersect at Franklin (Tenn.): the circle of 500 miles from Mobile, and of 300 miles from Memphis, intersect at Glasgow in Kentucky; consequently, in a rail-road struggle, a line connecting the points, Glasgow in Kentucky, Franklin in Tennessee, and Eastport in Tennessee, defines the northern boundary of the basin of Mobile. By applying this system of reasoning, it follows that, north of the line just determined, New-Orleans can retain her trade by the aid of rail-roads; and that, without this aid, Mobile can draw off all the business of Nashville basin, and even a considerable portion, if not all, of that of Louisville basin. But, to sum up the foregoing, it may be asked whether, with the limits of Mobile basin running from Eastport in Tennessee to Glasgow in Kentucky, New-Orleans is quite safe in regarding her present trade an unconditional entail. Rail-roads can sustain her position north of this line. Without rail-roads, the greatness of New-Orleans must dwindle into absolute insignificance. New-Orleans must, therefore, act: she must put her shoulder to the wheel: it will help her very little to call, with either yawning indifference or fitful earnestness, on the iron Jupiter.

A large portion of the present trade of New-Orleans must, in any event, be drawn off to other sea-ports. Part of Eastern Tennessee must henceforth continue to send its business to Charleston over the Georgia rail-roads. The Selma and Tennessee, the Mobile and Ohio, must, from the date of their completion, draw off all the trade of Alabama, one-third of the trade of Mississippi, and about the same proportion of the trade of Tennessee. If, then, rail-roads can simply stop the inroads of Mobile and Charleston at these limits, how, it may be asked, is New-Orleans to meet this enormous draft on her prosperity? The answer arises evidently—by the development of those parts of her basin that must for ever continue parts of it.

The best means of stimulating the production of the territory that must continue for ever tributary to New-Orleans, appear to be these: 1st, a rail-road from Memphis to St. Francis in Arkansas; with these two extensions from that point, namely, one to Arkansas river at Little Rock, the other by the shortest possible route to Erie on the Osage; 2d, a rail-road from Natchez across the Washita to La Grange on Red River, and thence by the valley of the Upper Washita to meet the Memphis road at Little Rock.

The road from Memphis to the Osage must necessarily form the basin of a system of roads. Though only some 250 miles long, it suggests—indeed will force—junctions, extensions, branches, to an extent much greater than its own. The branch from St. Francis to

Little Rock, the first link in a southern route to the Pacific, will be 90 miles long. A branch road westward from Elizabeth, will open up the country to the head waters of White River. A northeasterly branch from Jackson, or Canton in Arkansas, will penetrate the great mineral district of Missouri. A connection at Erie, or some other point in the valley of the Osage, will *tap* the St. Louis "Pacific Rail-road" on its route easterly. This Osage road must, necessarily, be the parent of all these. It will, therefore, identify New-Orleans with the great future—lying within and without the State of Missouri. Traversing a country teeming with industrial resources—coal, lead, zinc, copper, iron—it will make New-Orleans the market of the greatest manufacturing city in the Mississippi valley, namely, the city of Memphis, when acted on by this road. This road may be said to be not so much a work of development as of creation—the creation, however, of an unequalled, and still more of an unassailable, commercial greatness. But even now the farmers in the valleys of White River and of Arkansas River are crying, like Sterne's starling, "I can't get out." Gentlemen of New-Orleans, pray help those thrifty fellows to bring grist to your mill. 1,200,000 dollars will, most likely, build a rail-road from Memphis to Little Rock. A land donation from the government—obtainable for the asking—may be made to yield (and the sales should be made on the condition of settlement) at least 500,000 dollars; Arkansas and Memphis will subscribe 300,000 dollars; and surely you, gentlemen, are sufficiently interested in this road to subscribe the balance—400,000 dollars. You will not trouble yonrselves in the matter? But better things are to be hoped of you. An untamed earthquake tore those Arkansas and Missouri riches from the bowels of the earth for you; speak the word, and a tamed, a harnessed earthquake, shall lay them at your feet.

A rail-road from Natchez, by way of Red River to Little Rock, recommends itself to the support of New-Orleans, by the influence it must exert on the development of the whole of northern Louisiana and southern Arkansas; and above all, in the advancement of the present incipient state, inhabited chiefly by that interesting people, the Choctaws. This road defines a system of roads that, under its fostering influence, will spring up immediately on its completion: it bends sufficiently westward to unlock the trade of north-western Texas by a branch road: it runs far enough towards the borders of Arkansas to ensure a future extension to the upper Arkansas, in the territory of the Cherokees and Creeks: and in conjunction with a Memphis and Little Rock road, its upper bend runs sufficiently westward to place the starting point of a southern route to the Pacific on the borders of Texas.

A road from Natchez, by Lagrange to Little Rock, will be about 280 miles long, and might, perhaps, be estimated at $2,500,000. A road from Natchez to La Grange may, perhaps, be found better suited to the existing circumstances of the case. This road will be some 160 miles long, and will probably not cost more than $1,500,000. Natchez would most likely take $200,000 in the stock of this road; Louisiana would perhaps take $400,000 more; and assuming the do-

nation of government to yield $500,000, a subscription on the part of New-Orleans of $400,000, will therefore build the road.

The Natchez and Little Rock road will traverse a country not only singularly favorable for locomotion, but extraordinarily rich in agricultural resources. The glowing pictures drawn by settlers in the Ouachita valley—a valley which this road taps twice—represent it, its corn and cotton, its wine and olives, a very Canaan of agricultural richness. Coupling this with the dazzling promise afforded by the partial explorations of the mineralogy of the district lying between the waters of the Arkansas and those of the Ouachita Rivers, there is very little room for doubt as to the success of a rail-road from Natchez to Little Rock. But when the trade of the Red River valley above the great raft is added to that included in those relations, a road from Natchez to Little Rock, by way of Red River, may be very safely pronounced an excellent investment, when the present population along the route shall have received the increase consequent on disposing of the government donation to actual settlers. Add to this, that the lands obtainable from the government constructing from one-third to one-half of the road by their proceeds, the immense returns of the road, being distributed over one-half or two-thirds of the nominal capital, the dividends will be increased from 33 to 50 per cent. to actual subscribers. Here, then, is a rich field, in addition to that other one furnished by a Memphis and Little Rock rail-road, for New-Orleans enterprise. Let New-Orleans awake before too late: she sleeps in her purple pomp, with a poinard at her breast.

One hundred and forty-five miles of the road suggested between Natchze and Little Rock, lying within the borders of Louisiana, that state is very deeply interested in the construction of such a road.

Natchez being made the store-house of the boundless territory debouching its raw materials over this road, must necessarily become one of the greatest marts in the Mississippi valley; a point for the distribution of the products of even millions of people. With such a prize within her reach—one strong, energetic citizen could grasp it—the people of Natchez are concerned very largely in the construction of a Little Rock and Natchez road.

But notwithstanding the immense benefit resulting to Natchez, the terminus of a Little Rock and Natchez, like that of a Little Rock and Memphis rail-road, is, in reality, situated on the levee of New-Orleans. *Three hundred miles of an unrivalled navigation* connecting her with Natchez, New-Orleans cannot possibly improve on the commercial results of a Little Rock, La Grange and Natchez rail-road, by an extension to her levee, through forests and swamps, of *one hundred and forty miles of rail-road.* What is the policy of making a road in reality, where it already exists in result? The New-York and Erie rail-road terminates at Piermont, a place connected by the navigation of the Hudson River with the city of New-York; but what man of sense will suppose that the commercial result—in fact, the terminus—of the New-York and Erie rail-road, is in Piermont? New-Orleans is plainly, evidently, as much the terminus

of a Little Rock and Memphis, of a Little Rock and Natchez rail-road, as New-York is of an Erie and Piermont rail-road.

A Little Rock and Natchez rail-road, as a certain and powerful means of stimulating the progress of thousands of square miles of Louisiana and Arkansas, and of building up on their borders a highly productive civilization, is a work of life and death importance to the tottering greatness of New-Orleans. Gentlemen of New-Orleans, meet: talk the matter over soberly; lay down, as a corporate body and as individuals, your portion of the subscription; and rest assured, that from that moment a Little Rock and Natchez—at all events, a La Grange and Natchez—rail-road, has commenced its transition from ink and paper to earth and iron. The initiative must, however, be taken by you. Gentlemen, the Ouachita, the Red River, and the Arkansas valleys, have locked up within them all the riches of the Arabian cave. The spell-word that opens them is that gruff and uncouth one of the modern genii, "Fiz-zig-rattle-crackle-whiz." Quick, gentlemen; others know the secret!

The influence of a La Grange and Natchez rail-road will quicken the settlement of the public lands along its route; and setting a tide of enterprise beyond it, spread out in a very short time a new state on the Western borders of Arkansas. Such a work is entitled to the support of the general government.

With the states of Louisiana and Arkansas, the general government, the cities of Memphis, Natchez and New-Orleans, all interested in the construction of a Little Rock and Memphis, and a La Grange and Natchez road,—in all, about 290 miles,—there can be as little doubt of the means as there is of the ends. What, then, is wanted? Not intelligence, not resource, not public spirit; there is a perfect glut of all these. What, then, is wanted but a man,—a man who can mould circumstances to his purpose; one of deep convictions and strong will? Gentlemen of New-Orleans, you are laggards behind the world. You are sleepers, while the early ones of the earth are picking your cotton and shelling your corn. Would you come up with the rest of mankind? Let every mother's son amongst you, mechanic and merchant, lawyer and laborer, hitch himself firmly to a locomotive. Shame on you, sirs! In this twentieth year of the rail-road gospel, you are yourselves the only *rail-road sleepers* in Louisiana. What! will you sleep on? Even your little neighbor, Mobile, rails—and steams—in your face.

While, as portions of their respective system of roads, a Memphis and Little Rock, and a Natchez and Red River rail-road, are, at the present moment, the true *progressive* policy of New-Orleans, it may be well to inquire what is the true *conservative* policy of that city;—what, for instance, is the best means of maintaining her position in the country watered by the Cumberland, and that watered by the Ohio? The answer evidently arises, by a rail-road from Memphis to Nashville, and thence to the Ohio at Louisville.

In a rail-road struggle, the influence of Mobile, and that also of Charleston, terminate in the basin of Nashville; that of the latter terminating east of Nashville, and that of Mobile south of Nashville.

This district is, therefore, the ground on which New-Orleans should take up her position. Let her protect this assailable point, and all within is safe. The rail-roads of New-York hold Cincinnati at present within their influence; and, operating from that point, New-York, by drawing trade in the opposite direction, is sapping the prosperity of Louisville. An extension of a Memphis and Nashville road to Louisville will hold trade to its original direction, and, by maintaining Louisville against the otherwise ruinous influence of Cincinnati, preserve the prosperity of Louisville, as part and parcel of the prosperity of New-Orleans. All the trade on the north side of the road from Memphis to Nashville, will be caught on its rails and whirled off to New-Orleans. Mobile, hampered by the *direction* of her roads, can operate at only two or three points on the south side of a Memphis and Nashville road; and, therefore, bringing but two or three isolated influences in competition with the continuous influence of this east and west road, will leave indisputable possession to New-Orleans of much of the trade even south of a Memphis and Nashville road. On every consideration, it may be concluded that this Louisville and New-Orleans rail-road—a road of 370 miles, in reality, though a road of 700 miles in result,—is the first, as it is the best, in the policy of New-Orleans.

Louisville, situated at a point where much of the business of the upper country must, for a great part of the year, take the rails, on its way to New-Orleans, will necessarily become, under the influence of this road, the greatest city on the Ohio. The road to Memphis being the only means of preventing a change in the direction of trade from Cincinnati, will compel that city to pay tribute to Louisville; whereas, without this road, business following the direction of New-York, Louisville, absorbed into a system, in which, taking the part of an extremity which trade flows *from*, rather than a centre which trade flows *to*, must inevitably dwindle into a tributary to Cincinnati. The importance of this road to Louisville is, perhaps, even greater than to New-Orleans.

Nashville, connected with the mineral and mountain districts of eastern Tennessee and Kentucky, by a water carriage, adapted generally for lighterage, will, under the influence of this road, become the seat and centre of extensive manufactures. This road will place the products of Nashville within easy access of the best points of exchange in the world, namely, in ten or twelve years hence, the cities along the Mississippi River; and, besides this impulse to manufacturing enterprise, make her the greatest terminal depot for the extreme eastern trade of New-Orleans. This road is, therefore, not more emphatically a New-Orleans road than it is a Nashville road.

The new relations opened up by a Louisville, Nashville and Memphis rail-road, will, by making Memphis a point for the transhipment of traffic on the road, do Memphis very great service; but the road to Erie on the Osage is the road which, though now impracticable, is destined to exert the greatest influence on the prosperity of Memphis. A road from Louisville to Memphis is, however, a work of very deep importance to Memphis.

The benefits of a Memphis and Louisville road will be very considerable to the country traversed by it. In Tennessee it would, running through the centre of the state, connect its two most important points, and by connection with the Nashville and Charleston road at Nashville, complete a continuous chain of rail-road through the heart of Tennessee. Passing through the counties, Shelby, Fayette, Haywood, Hardeman, Madison, Henderson, Perry, Hickman, Humphreys, Williamson, Dickson, Davidson, Robertson, and Sumner, it crosses the direction of all the intermediate water-courses, and consequently—though perhaps increasing the engineering difficulties—opening up along its whole length a country only partially accessible, promises the greatest possible amount of good to the state. This road is, emphatically, a Tennessee road—the state road of Tennessee. In Kentucky this road will furnish a cheap means of transit to several hundred square miles of country, whose productions, under the present circumstances, pay the heavy tax of wagon-haulage. It will run through that state for upwards of 120 miles, opening up the resources and increasing the wealth of fourteen counties: viz., Simpson, Allen, Logan, Warren, Butler, Barry, Grayson, Edmondson, Hart, Harden, Larue, Nelson, Bullitt, and Jefferson. Kentucky is therefore very deeply interested in the construction of a Memphis and Louisville rail-road.

With New-Orleans and Louisville interested in this road as in a thing of life-and-death, with Memphis and Nashville, Tennessee and Kentucky all very deeply concerned in it; with the circumstances of forty counties of Tennessee and Kentucky calling out for its construction, why is this road not built? Let New-Orleans and Louisville see to it while they are able to lend it aid.

The importance of a Louisville and Memphis rail-road to Louisville and New-Orleans cannot, under existing circumstances, be overrated. The connection of this road with a point of so little comparative importance as Nashville, would not justify—unless indeed Nashville lend the work very liberal aid—any serious drawback on the efficiency of the road in promoting the two great interests of Louisville and New-Orleans. The route by Nashville involves an increased length of some twenty-five miles; and besides that, running farther up towards the head of the streams watering the country, presents in all probability heavier work and steeper grades. The more direct route by Sommerville, Jackson, Huntingdon, Paris—striking the Tennessee River at Grey's Ferry, the Cumberland River at Dover—runs by Hopkinsville, Greenville, Hartford, &c.; and following for a considerable part a succession of valleys, besides passing the streams at points farther from their sources, promises a cheaper and a better road. This latter route, too, bears stronger evidence of a sustaining trade at several stages of its progress: at the crossing of the Tennessee, the road has fulfilled a purpose: some twelve miles farther on, it forms at the crossing of the Cumberland another complete design: at the crossing of Green River it receives an accession of business, that marks this as another complete stage in its progress: touching the Ohio River at West Point, a town some twenty miles

below Louisville, it accomplishes at that stage an additional important end; and lastly, running up to the falls of the Ohio at Louisville, the point of *debouch* and *transhipment* for the trade of fifty steamboats, the outlet of a great commercial basin shut up partially for one part of the year by droughts, and shut up totally for another part of the year by frosts, it effects the last great purpose that marks it with magnificence. In no instance throughout the country can be found a series of distinct and important ends so perfectly strung together in one design; in no instance throughout the country can be found a design, whose crowning purpose will accomplish such magnificent results. The route direct to Louisville has this additional advantage: by striking the Mobile and Ohio Rail-road at a more obtuse angle, it becomes a more certain means of tapping that road at their junction; whereas a more southerly route, bringing the angle of junction the other way, would at a certain point produce the contrary effect.

A Memphis and Little Rock road is one of the first importance in the progressive policy of New-Orleans. Memphis is the great outlet of South-Western emigration; and a road debouching from that point at White River and Arkansas River into the heart of unsettled lands of teeming riches, will attract from those districts about to become tributary to Mobile, an amount of capital and industry that will, in a few years, build up a magnificent trade for New-Orleans. Existing circumstances justify this movement even now: the population on White River are calling out against their means of communication with market, so also with the people of Little Rock: the trade centering at Batesville, and that also at Little Rock, has no outlet for several months of the year. The population of all Arkansas north of the southern limit of the Arkansas-river-basin, must discharge their products over a Memphis and Little Rock rail-road—one-half of the number sending their products as through-traffic, the other half as way-traffic. The donation of public lands being one important item in the means for constructing the road, if the sale of this donation be made on the condition of settlement, a large emigrant population being attracted to the route of the road, the traffic and the train may be made to spring up together. Exertion in these matters is absolutely essential to the existence of New-Orleans: the corporation of that city may do well to stimulate enterprise in, for instance, such roads as that between Little Rock and Memphis, to anticipate its promotion by an offer of subscription. If local interests are indifferent to action in these cases, New-Orleans cannot afford to be so: she owes herself the duty of awaking, along all the routes of her trade, a spirit of practical enterprise. No better way could suggest itself for this purpose, than a statement beforehand of the works she will in her corporate capacity support, and the extent to which she will support them. This is an unusual course: but New-Orleans must *force* the construction of her rail-roads without loss of time.

In conclusion, it may be repeated, that the interests of Memphis and of Natchez are the interests of New-Orleans; that merely local measures will yield New-Orleans but merely local trade, a trade that, owing to her geographical position, must necessarily be very li-

mited; that a large and comprehensive policy, one in keeping with her greatness, must, by placing her in result at the head of an estuary in the interior, enable her to still gather the riches in the teeth of all competition of the greater portion of the Mississippi valley. The result to New-Orleans of a rail-road from Natchez will be very great indeed; but rail-roads from Memphis, giving New-Orleans in effect a most magnificent geographical position, will reduce the encroachments of Mobile, Charleston, New-York, to the narrowest limits, and swell the extent of the New-Orleans basin westward of the Mississippi to the largest extent. If, however, New-Orleans will unfortunately persist in schemes of roads, terminating actually *within* herself, let her, if she do not choose to waste her resources on a work miserably local, direct her line to the west of north; indeed, if she will insist on *seeing* rail-road cars, the best direction she could adopt would be one by Natchez to Red River. Roads running for any length due north of New-Orleans, can be most certainly tapped by Mobile. The course indicated above, and for the reasons stated, will, however, be found the true policy of New-Orleans.*

NOTE:—The proportion, four to one, between carriage on Southern rail-roads and on the Mississippi between Memphis and New-Orleans, is based on the following facts and figures:—

Lieut. Maury, in his address to the Memphis Convention of November, 1849, showing the cause why a road of *any such length* as a Pacific Rail-road, can *never be regarded a channel for trade*, gives the result of an analysis of the freights on 15 rail-roads as follows: merchandise is divided on those roads into three classes.

The first class, consisting of heavy articles, such as coal and iron, pays an average freight of 4½ cents per ton per mile.

The second class, consisting of grain, provisions, &c. (the average freight not stated.)

The third class, consisting of light and bulky articles, such as cloths and manufactured goods, pays an average freight of 8 cents per ton per mile.

The following are the charges for *heavy freights* on several roads in New-England:

Boston and Lowell	5 cents per ton per mile	Average of heavy freights on 6 New-England roads. 3 1-2 cents per ton per mile.
Boston and Maine	2¾ cents per ton per mile	
Boston and Worcester	4 cents per ton per mile	
Concord Rail-road	3¾ cents per ton per mile	
Fitchburgh Rail-road	4 cents per ton per mile	
Western of Massachusetts	2½ cents per ton per mile	

The Auburn and Rochester road (New-York) charges for heavy freights 7¾ cents per ton per mile. The freights on the following roads may, however, be held to furnish an average closer to the truth for such roads as shall come in competition with the Mississippi:

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* The projected road, now a matter of so much interest, *to connect New-Orleans, and Jackson, Mississippi*, cannot, we think, be included under what the author of the above entitles merely "local." We have long regarded it with great favour, and urged its construction upon grounds, which appeared in previous numbers of the Review. It is a road, we believe, *immediately* practical and expedient. [ED.]

Madison and Indianapolis, Ia...For heavy freights, 5 4-5 c. per ton per mile,
Little Miami, Ohio.....For heavy freights, 4 cts. per ton per mile,
Macon and Western, Georgia..For heavy freights, 5 cts. per ton per mile,
Central, Savannah to Macon, Ga..For heavy freights, 4¾ c. per ton per mile,
} Average 4 7-8 cents per ton per mile.

A more detailed basis of comparison may be furnished in the following tables, the first part of the first table being an abstract from the advertisement in the "American Rail-road Journal" of the roads referred to; the first part of the second table being an abstract from the advertisement in the same Journal of the Central Railroad (Georgia) from Savannah to Macon:

1.—GEORGIA RAIL-ROAD TRANSPORT.

(EXTRACT FROM COMPANY'S ADVERTISEMENT.)

408 miles—29 hours.

FREIGHT.

} Between Charleston and Dalton—a point 32 miles from Chattanooga, 408 miles.

1*st Class*.—Boxes of hats, bonnets and furniture, per cubic foot	$0 28
2*d Class*.—Boxes and bales of dry goods, saddlery, glass, paints, drugs and confectionary, per 100 lbs	1 50
3*d Class*.—Sugar, coffee, liquor, bagging, rope, cotton yarns, tobacco, leather, hides, copper, tin, feathers, sheet-iron, hollow-ware, castings, crockery, &c	0 85
4*th Class*.—Flour, rice, bacon, pork, beef, fish, lard, tallow, beeswax, bar-iron, ginseng, mill-gearing, pig-iron and grindstones, &c	0 65
COTTON, per 100 lbs	0 70
Molasses, per hogshead	13 50
Do. per barrel	4 25
Salt, per bushel, (at 18 cents for 271 miles)	0 27
Salt, per Liverpool, sack, (at 65 cents for 271 miles)	0 98
Ploughs, corn-shellers, cultivators, straw-cutters, wheel-barrows, &c	1 50

2.—CENTRAL RAIL-ROAD.

(EXTRACT FROM COMPANY'S ADVERTISEMENT.)

190 miles—13½ hours.

FREIGHT.

} Central Road, from Savannah to Macon

On weight goods generally, per 100 lbs	$0 50
On measurement goods, per cubic foot	0 13
On barrels, wet, (except molasses and oil)	1 50
On barrels, dry, (except lime)	0 80
On iron, in pigs or bars, castings for mills, and unboxed machinery, per 100 lbs	0 40
On hogsheads and pipes of liquor, not over 120 gallons	5 00
On molasses and oil, per hhd	6 00

Mr. Hewson left some blank to be filled up by us, showing the comparative freights and time on the Mississippi River for the same distance, and the actual advantage in cheapness possessed by the river, after loss in interest and in-

surance paid, are deducted. We endeavored, by conversation with merchants, and investigation, to fill up these blanks, but could not do it with any precision, or in such a way as would be at all satisfactory. In the first place, freights vary 100 per cent., according to the season, the boat, &c., and very frequently to double the distance will not be to increase the expense at all, or except in a very small figure. In table 1, we should say the rates on the river for actual freight, a corresponding distance, would be : class 1, 7 cents cubic foot ; 2d class, 40 cts. the hundred ; 3d class, 20 cents ; 4th class, 10 cents ; cotton per hundred 30, molasses per hhd. $1 50, salt (sack) 20 cents. Or generally, on weight goods, the highest and lowest figures, 25 and 50 cents per hundred, average 30 cents. Insurance, 1 to 1½ and 2 per cent. Taking all things into consideration for the same distance, we think the average expense on the river does not exceed ¼ to 1-5 that on the rail-roads, as given in the schedule above. This is but a rough approximation, and we are in such a hurry for the press as to be unable to be very precise.—[Editor.]

The average ratio of river and road freights as deduced from these tables for the items of general trade, would stand a little higher than the ratio adopted ; but, taking all the circumstances of the case into consideration, may, the writer is of opinion, be taken on an average of four to one. The difference that can be made in the case will certainly be too trifling to interfere materially with the results laid down above ; and can in nowise affect the system of reasoning, however it may affect the *preciseness* of the deductions.

In considering the conflict of New-Orleans and Mobile, the two markets are assumed equally good ; perhaps, however, the Mobile papers disguise a little superiority in the New-Orleans quotations : a very little difference—a very shade of a difference in favor of New-Orleans, would more than weigh any want of exactness in laying down the limits of the Mobile and New-Orleans basin on a ratio between roads and rivers, of one to four.

ART. VIII.—THE STATE OF MISSISSIPPI.

EARLY HISTORY OF MISSISSIPPI—DE SOTO—WAR OF THE NATCHEZ, ETC.

PART I.

The following paper, being from a gentleman of high character and intelligence, bids fair to be one of much interest, and will extend through several numbers. We wish that our literary friends, in the different states, would be persuaded to prepare, or cause to be prepared, for the Review, a similar series of papers upon those states. We have already had a promise from Senator Borland, of *Arkansas*, who says he is diligently collecting the material for a full and complete sketch of that interesting commonwealth. Mr. Clingman, of *North-Carolina*, partially promised one upon his state ; and we had a similar conditional promise from *Texas*. Who will take up *Tennessee*, *Florida*, *Alabama*, *Virginia*, *South-Carolina*, *Missouri*, &c., &c. ? We published, last month, a paper upon *Georgia;* and throughout our *nine* volumes is scattered an immense amount of material relating to all of the *Southern* states. In regard to *Louisiana*, it is our wish to be more minute, and we have urgently begged the history of the different parishes from gentlemen resident in them. Fellow-citizens of the South, let us preserve the records of our being and our enterprise.—[*Ed.*

Dear Sir :—In the November number of the Review, I was reminded of a promise which I made to you in July last. By this no-

tice, you have so publicly committed me to the fulfilment of this promise, that, not to perform it at all, would be as disgraceful as to perform it ill. I must, therefore, now commence a task which, till this time, many circumstances of a private nature had banished from my remembrance.

I allude to my promise to furnish you with an *Historical Sketch, social, political and commercial, of the state of Mississippi.* As preliminary to this, it will be necessary for me to sketch, briefly, that portion of its history which preceded the occupation of that territory now lying within its borders, by the United States of America.

Of the early discovery of this country, there is no history which, in all its details, can be called authentic. Though not quite so apocryphal as that which narrated the adventures of Jason in search of the golden fleece, or Hercules strangling lions and other monsters, with which Grecian and Roman traditions have entertained mankind, the story of the adventures of De Soto and his companions is, at best, believed, only because no more probable or authentic account exists.

The territory now embraced within the limits of the state of Mississippi, was a "vast, unbroken, untrodden, magnificent wilderness," save the almost imperceptible traces by which the untutored savages glided from one of their hunting grounds to another, and the few sparse villages which they inhabited, until the year 1540, (310 years ago,) when De Soto, with his followers, numbering about 1,000 mounted men, led on by thirst of conquest and gold, penetrated across the eastern boundary of the state, to that portion of it now called Yallobusha county. They there took possession of several hundred wigwams, which the affrighted Indians abandoned at the approach of this warlike and formidable train. Here they found an abundance of corn, which afforded subsistence to themselves and their horses during a winter of unusual severity, and fortified themselves against attack from the only quarter which threatened them, as well as the nature of their situation allowed. Well it was for them that they did so: for the Spaniard of that day, with all his chivalry and pride, was but a barbarian; and his cruelty and injustice to the native tribes, whom they had driven from their rude but happy homes, soon provoked retaliatory measures from the latter. The Indians attacked their fortifications with such courage and success, that every habitation was burnt, about forty of the Spaniards and their horses killed, their arms and clothing consumed, and indeed almost everything essential to the comfort, subsistence and protection of adventurers, far from their native land, and in the midst of implacable enemies, was destroyed.

The Spaniards were thus forced, temporarily, to adopt another position, which, having done, and having repaired their losses so far as ingenuity and labor could accomplish it, they recommenced their march westwardly, and in a few days struck the eastern bank of the Mississippi river. Having here consumed a month in constructing boats, they finally succeeded in landing on the western bank of the river, at a point (as it is supposed) a short distance below Helena,

Arkansas. They then penetrated Arkansas, in search of gold, as far as the Arkansas river, and at this point, De Soto having lost about half of his gallant band, and their horses, and being without sufficient provisions for the residue, despairing of the object which had hitherto animated his bosom,—the discovery of gold,—and dejected and dispirited by all these causes, resolved to return to the bank of the Mississippi river, and there establish a colony, until he could send to Cuba (then occupied by Spain) for ships and a reinforcement of men and arms, with which to take permanent and secure possession of his newly-discovered country, doubtless with the view of founding a mighty and populous empire, with which his memory would forever be associated. But alas, for ambition—that aspiring quality, "for man's illusion given!" No sooner had De Soto reached the Mississippi river, than he was seized with a fatal disorder, which terminated his life. Before his death, he appointed Luis de Muscoso, his successor, in command. To prevent the Indians from mutilating his body, his followers excavated a green oak, in which they laid his body. They then nailed a plank over it, and threw it into the river, where it sunk.* This occurred in the year 1542.

It would be naturally supposed that the remnant of his band would now desire to return to Cuba; but, although dispirited, they were undismayed, and, under the command of Muscoso, they wandered for many months among the western wilds, suffering all the misery which want, exposure and danger could inflict, till the year 1543, when the survivors returned again to the Mississippi River, and prepared to leave the country, and by descending the river to the sea, seek a more hospitable land. Having, after several months, constructed a number of large open barks, the sides of which were defended by hides against the Indian arrows, they embarked.

They now numbered about 350 men. They found their way beset by hostile Indians, who, in their light canoes, would pass or run around them, and discharge showers of arrows among them, during several days and nights. At length, weary of submission to this harassing species of warfare, about fifty of the Spaniards manned a pirogue, and boldly sallied out to attack the savages. But all were cut off—not one returned. The remainder, at the end of twenty days, reached the sea, and shortly afterwards arrived at a Spanish town on the coast of Mexico, where they were kindly treated. But adventurers like these are always wholly unfitted, by their peculiar habits of life, for any permanent occupation or home; and from this point they soon dispersed, and wandered whithersoever accident or fortune might lead them. Thus ended the romantic expedition of Fernando de Soto.†

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* De Soto was 42 years of age when he died, and had expended 100,000 ducats in this expedition.—*Holmes's Annals of America*, vol. 1, p. 74.

† In 1673, Father Marquette, and Joliet, a citizen of Quebec, employed by M. Talon for the Mississippi, entered that noble river on the 17th June, and after descending it until they came within three days' journey of the Gulf of Mexico, they returned towards Canada.—*Holmes's Annals of America*, vol. 1, p. 74.

In 1682, (140 years after De Soto's invasion of American territory,) La Salle descended the Mississippi River to the point of its confluence with the Gulf of Mexico, and there took formal possession of the adjacent country, in the name of the King of France, and called it Louisiana.

Ascending the river again, he tarried among the Natchez and the Tensas tribes of Indians, and then went to Chickasaw Fort. A short time afterwards, he went to France, and in 1684 returned with a colony, bound for the mouth of the Mississippi River; but unfortunately missing the longitude, he landed on the coast of Texas, where, for several years, the unhappy colonists, assailed by various hardships, wasted away, and La Salle himself, not long afterwards, was murdered by some of the discontented and factious survivors.

In 1698, M. d'Iberville was authorized by the French King again to colonize the regions bordering on the lower Mississippi. He landed at Ship Island, off the mouth of Pascagoula river, and erected huts for his colonists. Here he discovered the Biloxi tribe. From this point, setting out in two large barges, he explored the coast, and on the second day of March, discovered the mouth of the Mississippi river. All doubt of the identity of this river with that descended by La Salle, was dispersed by discovering, when they reached Bayou Goula, articles left there by the latter in 1682, and also a letter left by De Tonti for La Salle, in 1685. Having visited the mouth of Red River and Manchac, Iberville returned to Ship Island, and erected a fort at the bay of Biloxi, about eighty miles east of New-Orleans. He then embarked for France, leaving the fort in command of his brother, Bienville. In December, 1699, Iberville returned from France, and built a fort soon afterwards on the banks of the Mississippi River.

In 1700, De Tonti, having descended the Mississippi river, arrived at Iberville's fort with a party of Canadian French, from the Illinois. Iberville availed himself of De Tonti's experience and knowledge of the country, to ascend the river and explore its banks, form alliances, &c. He accordingly detailed a party, with De Tonti and Bienville, to ascend in barges and canoes. They ascended as high up as the Natchez country, four hundred miles above the French fort. Here he selected a site for a fort, which, however, was not erected till sixteen years afterwards, and called it Rosalie. A settlement was also made in 1703 on the Yazoo river, which was called St. Peters.*

In 1704, Iberville died at Havanna, leaving the colonists dependent for subsistence on hunting and fishing, and the precarious bounty of the Indians. They did not resort for some years to agriculture, and it may well be supposed how difficult it was to induce men accustomed to this idle but seductive life, to exchange it for agriculture or other regular labor. In 1713, they cultivated small gardens at Biloxi.

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* The site of St. Peters is now owned by J. U. Payne, Esq., of New-Orleans, being part of his plantation.

In 1716, Bienville built a fort at Natchez,—the site which Iberville had selected and called Rosalie, sixteen years before,—and left in it a garrison of eighteen men, under M. Paillaux.

The colonies, thus established, grew but slowly. New-Orleans having been soon afterwards founded, and the coast above that city being exceedingly fertile, numerous emigrants were attracted thither, and in 1728, rice, tobacco and indigo had been produced and exported in considerable quantities.

Unfortunately, at this time, reciprocal ill-will had grown up between the frontier settlements and the neighboring Indians. The consequence was, a conspiracy of several tribes for the purpose of exterminating the whites. The Natchez despatched runners to the various towns and settlements of the Indians, who distributed quivers, full of reeds, each of which contained the same number. It was agreed, that after a certain moon, a reed should be drawn, every day, from each quiver, and that the day when the last reed was drawn, should be that of the intended massacre. It is said that an Indian girl, anxious to prevent the destruction of the whites, and especially to save the life of *one* of them, secretly drew several reeds from the quiver which the Natchez tribe possessed, with the view of thus defeating the union of the different tribes on the same day, without which, it was believed by her, that no single tribe would make the attack.

But her stratagem only precipitated the catastrophe. On the appointed day, the Natchez, thinking that their allies had faltered, resolved to execute alone the original design contemplated by all. Accordingly, while the whites (though forewarned) were in their houses or fields, dispersed and engaged in their various pursuits, the Indians entered the settlement, and, under the pretence of trading for provisions and ammunition for a great hunt, obtained access to their counting-houses and dwellings, and in an evil hour fell upon them, and massacred them in detail. Every white man in the settlement was murdered, except a carpenter and a tailor, both of whom were spared by the Indians, with the view, on their part, of building houses and making garments for themselves; and also with the exception of two soldiers, who, having been absent on that day, hunting, were on their way back to the fort, but perceiving the smoke and flames issuing from the houses, and hearing the yells of the savages, instantly fled, and by various means found their way to New-Orleans, where they announced the terrible calamity which had befallen the garrison at Fort Rosalie.

The women and slaves were preserved as prisoners. The governor, Chapart,—who, though frequently admonished of his danger before this massacre, had turned a deaf ear to the advice of his counsellors, and, being of an audacious and reckless character, had even threatened every one with punishment who should communicate any similar intelligence,—was the first to pay the forfeit of his temerity. At the same time, the little colony at St. Peters, on the Yazoo river, and the one at Sicily Island, and a third, near the town of Monroe, shared the

same disastrous fate.* For, although the neighboring tribes had been prevented by the stratagem of the Natchez girl from uniting in the massacre at Fort Rosalie, they yet proceeded, on the day which, but for the precipitancy of the Natchez tribe, would have been the time for general co-operation, to massacre all the whites within their reach.

Thus, in the year 1728, in one day, were swept away every vestige of civilization by the Indians, within the limits which now constitute the boundaries of the state of Mississippi. Not less than two hundred persons, who had encountered and survived all the perils and hardships of emigration and a sickly climate, perished, in an hour, beneath the scalping-knife of the savage.†

The Indians, inflated with success, and glutted with spoil, abandoned themselves, over the collected bones of their victims, to the most intemperate orgies; but in the midst of their prolonged carousing, Lesueur, having obtained the aid of six hundred Choctaw warriors, on the Tombigbee, advanced suddenly upon them, and took sixty scalps, and rescued fifty women and children, and the carpenter and tailor before mentioned, from captivity, besides one hundred and six negro slaves. After this exploit, these Choctaw warriors dispersed without further action. But, in the meantime, Loubois was advancing with a large force from New-Orleans, and the Natchez Indians, learning their approach, ceased from their carousals, and fortified themselves for defence. After a skirmish of seven days, during which the Indians fought desperately, they sent a flag to Loubois, proposing to surrender the remaining French prisoners, numbering two hundred souls, provided the French artillery should be removed, and the siege abandoned; but declaring that a refusal of these terms would be followed by the immediate destruction of all the French prisoners, by fire. In order to preserve life, Loubois consented, and negotiations commenced, for which purpose hostilities had been previously suspended for ten days. At length it was agreed that the prisoners should, on the following day, be surrendered, opposite to the fort. But during the night, the Indians, *justly suspecting* treachery

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* The *immediate* cause of this massacre was the wresting from the Indians, by the Governor, of a fertile tract of land, about six miles below Natchez, for the purpose of bestowing it on ——— Hutchins, whose venerable descendant now resides on it, and is nearly 80 years of age.

† I have taken the foregoing narrative from Monette's History of the Valley of the Mississippi. In Holmes's Annals of America, vol. 1, p. 545, A. D. 1729, I find the following account of the Natchez massacre:

"The Natchez, an Indian nation, formed a general conspiracy to massacre the French colonists of Louisiana." (Louisiana *then* comprehended Natchez.) "M. de Chepar, who commanded the post at Natchez, had been embroiled with the natives, but they so far dissembled as to excite the belief that the French had no allies more faithful than they. The plot having been deeply laid, they appeared in great numbers about the French houses, on the 28th November, telling the people they were going to hunt. They sung, after the calumet, in honor of the French commandant and his company. Each having returned to his post, a signal was given, and instantly the general massacre began. Nearly two hundred persons were killed. Of all, not more than twenty French and five or six negroes escaped. One hundred and fifty children, eighty women, and almost as many negroes, were made prisoners." The authority quoted for this is *Charlevoix, Nouv. France*, ii, 466.

on the part of the French, retired from their stronghold with their women and children, and personal effects, and crossed the river. On the next morning, the French found the prisoners, but the Indians were beyond their pursuit.

Savages though they were, there is no doubt that the Natchez tribe felt all the sorrow of exiles, in being driven from their delightful home. No one can now ride among the romantic hills of Adams county, or the beautiful valley opposite to Natchez, which constituted the home and hunting ground of the Indian,—and which, in their day and generation, abounded with fish and game, as well as the spontaneous growth of many articles essential to their comfort,—without sympathizing with them in the sad destiny by which they were driven from this fair inheritance.

A few days after the expulsion of the Indians from Natchez, M. Loubois erected a terraced fort, of which the high bluff easily admitted, on the banks of the Mississippi, and supplied it with cannon and other munitions of war, and a garrison of one hundred and twenty men. The remains of this fort are still visible, though all traces of the race which founded it, as well as of their language, have been obliterated. But their habits are still exemplified in the lives of some of their descendants, improved by association and amalgamation with a more energetic race; and few towns or neighborhoods exhibit more evidences of the virtues of all races and nations, without the vices of either, than Natchez and the adjacent settlements.

My next number will contain the history of the Natchez tribe, and their allies, after the massacre at Fort Rosalie, and of the territory now composing the state of Mississippi, up to the period when the American flag first floated over it, and converted it from a refuge of the European to the "land of the free and the home of the brave." J. M. C.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—PROGRESSIVE COMMERCE OF THE UNION AND THE SOUTH.

In remarking upon the statistics presented by the Secretary of the Treasury for 1849–50, that able commercial writer, Thomas Prentice Kettell, presents the following summary:

UNITED STATES EXPORTS AND IMPORTS.

Products.	1846.	1849.	1850.
Of the sea	$3,453,398	$2,547,650	$2,824,818
Of the forest	6,807,284	5,917,994	7,442,503
Food	27,163,449	38,796,664	26,371,756
Tobacco	8,478,270	5,804,207	9,951,023
Cotton	42,767,341	66,300,077	71,984,616
Other agriculture	418,451	62,540	152,365
[Carried forward.]	$89,088,193	$119,429,132	$118,727,081

Products.	1846.	1849.	1850.
[Brought forward.]	89,088,193	119,429,132	118,727,081
Manufactures	5,623,069	11,249,777	15,144,405
Coal	–	40,396	167,090
Lead	614,518	30,198	–
Ice	–	95,027	107,018
Salt	–	82,972	75,103
Miscellaneous	1,490,303	769,557	679,556
Total domestic	101,718,042	131,710,081	134,900,233
United States coin	423,851	956,874	2,046,679
Foreign coin	3,481,417	4,447,774	5,576,315
Foreign goods	7,865,206	8,641,091	9,375,493
Total exports	113,488,516	145,755,820	151,895,720
Import goods	115,331,513	141,206,199	173,507,456
Import specie	6,360,284	6,651,240	13,710,118
Total imports	121,691,797	147,857,439	187,217,574

The export table presents a very satisfactory return. That which we particularly remark is, that under the present tariff the export of manufactures has increased three-fold; that is to say, they are fifteen millions in 1850 against five millions in 1846. The reason is obvious: manufacturers, being enabled to procure certain raw materials on better terms, are enabled, through the facilities afforded by the warehouse system, to compete more successfully in neutral markets. The manufactures of iron articles were exported in 1846 to the extent of $921,652, and in 1850, $1,677,792. It is in this mode that manufactures are encouraged. The exports of lead have been severely affected by the influence of California emigration upon the miners. In 1846, the exports of food had already been swollen by the failure of the Irish potatoe crop. Since then the general market has greatly expanded; and although the fiscal year 1850 was, on account of the abundance and cheap prices of Europe, the most unfavorable for exports that has occurred for twenty years, the exports were good. The great staples of the South have steadily and wonderfully improved in value, as seen in the following table of quantities and values exported:

QUANTITIES AND VALUES OF COTTON, RICE, AND TOBACCO EXPORTED.

	1845.	1849.	1850.
Cotton, lbs.,	872,905,000	1,926,602,629	635,381,604
" value,	$51,739,643	$66,396,976	$71,984,616
" per lb.,	5½ cts.	6½ cts.	11½ cts.
Rice, tierces,	118,621	128,826	127,069
" value,	$2,160,454	$2,569,362	$2,631,557
" per tierce,	$18 25	$19 90	$20 75
Tobacco, hhds.,	147,168	101,521	145,729
" value,	$7,469,819	$5,804,207	$9,951,023
" per hhd.,	$50 75	$52 75	$67 50

In these figures we have a very marked improvement in the value of the crops. Thus, as compared with 1845, twenty-five per cent. *less* cotton realized $20,000,000 more money! 2,000 hhds. less tobacco realized $2,500,000 more money! and an increase of 37 per cent. in rice was accompanied with an increase of 25 per cent. in the money it realized. In the general result of the exports, it would seem that there is an increase of $33,000,000 in the produce exported, and of $46,700,000 in the net import of foreign goods—an apparent excess of $13,700,000. We are, however, to take into consideration the cir

cumstances of the trade. Thus the official export value is the cost on this side; the actual value is what the exporter sells it for abroad, which includes the freights earned by the American shipping and the profits. Tobacco, for instance, pays $22 per hhd. freight. Hence the freights of 1850 amounted to $5,206,038; the profits, &c., amounted to perhaps $3,000,000—making altogether $18,000,000, to be returned to the United States as the proceeds of its tobacco. If the export trade is prosperous, the sales on American account not being made at a loss, the actual export value will much exceed the official value, and manifest itself in increased imports—these latter being of late years more on American account, and less consigned. At this moment, however, consignments are increasing on a falling market, and the losses will fall upon the foreign owners; therefore, for 1851, the apparent import value will perhaps exceed the actual amount to be paid. As the past was generally a prosperous year, the excess of imports is not more than should have resulted from the profits on exports. Of the specie imported, $9,283,556 is from our own mines of California, reaching us through foreign ports. That figure, however, by no means expresses the quantity which actually has been received. The following is a compilation of the mint reports:

RECEIPTS OF GOLD AT THE UNITED STATES MINTS FROM CALIFORNIA.

	To Jan., 1850.	Jan. 1 to Aug. 1.	Aug. 1 to Dec. 1.	Total.
At Philadelphia,	$5,525,607	$13,791,200	$13,558,790	$32,875,597
At New-Orleans	665,080	1,918,230	1,338,625	3,921,935
Total,	$6,190,687	$15,709,430	$14,897,415	$36,797,532

The receipts in December have been quite large. The export of lead has decreased, from being very large in 1846, without any imports; and the importation has now become large, as follows:

	1846.		1850.	
	Lbs.	Value.	Lbs.	Value.
Import,	7,995	$142	35,997,084	$1,182,597
Export,	16,823,766	614,518	None	—

The migration of the miners to the gold region cut off supply, while the extension of water pipes in most cities—particularly Boston, New-York, and Philadelphia—greatly stimulated demand: hence the entire reversal of the trade; and this million paid for lead may be charged to California. The importation of pig and bar iron has been as follows:

	1848.	1849.	1850.
Pig, cwt.	1,032,641	2,112,649	1,497,487
Bar "	2,034,913	3,681,106	5,253,154
Steel "	136,629	133,800	127,517

The large importation of railroad bars has been an immense advantage to the railroads, and also to the iron interests. The immense railroad speculations of Great Britain promoted the investment of great capital in the expensive machinery necessary for the formation of rails; the reaction of that speculation left an over-production of rails, which fell very low in price, and enabled our railroads to build at lower prices. The construction of railroads causes a great demand for home-made iron. Thus every ton of rails imported creates a demand for two tons of American iron for locomotives, and all descriptions of working stock which is not imported. If the iron interest should insist upon prohibiting foreign rails, the result would be to cause a demand for capital to go into rail making at monopoly prices. This would strangle railroad enterprise and destroy one-half the market for iron.

The construction of railroads has been the means of opening immense markets for produce that otherwise would not have existed, more particularly in enabling the produce of western farms to compete with those of Europe in the English markets. The exports of breadstuffs have been as follows :

EXPORTS OF BREADSTUFFS FROM THE UNITED STATES.

	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.
Flour,	$4,382,496	$2,149,393	2,108,013	1,385,448
Corn meal,	948,060	582,339	405,169	259,442
Rye, "	48,892	41,584	64,830	69,903
Wheat, bush.,	4,399,951	2,034,704	1,527,534	608,681
Corn, "	16,326,050	5,817,634	13,257,309	6,595,092

The fiscal year 1850 was, as we have said, the most trying year to test our export ability ; but the market well maintained itself, and will this year resume its onward progress. The value of our exports thus far in the fiscal year 1851 has much exceeded that of last year, and although the imports continue large, the exchanges are falling. Generally the stocks of dry goods are large ; but this has arisen from the fact that as the eastern and European markets, under the war fever, became depressed, English owners consigned their goods to the only sound market to realize on any terms. Hence the demand, to meet which the ordered goods were designed, was supplied by consignments. This latter policy is now being pursued for the spring trade ; and the prospect is that the goods will sell for less than their import value, and thus the amount to be actually paid will be less than the sum of the invoices, while the produce markets indicate a contrary result. The revenues of the government must benefit by the state of the market.

2.—SOUTHERN MERCANTILE MARINE.

The Savannah Georgian asks where is the Southern Marine, and why it presents such a meagre display, and says :—

"We say it, and without hesitation, that Georgia has greater resources for ship-building than any other State in the Union. Her ports offer favorable advantages. She has an inexhaustible supply of frame timber in the upper part of the State, as well as her live oak on the sea-board. Her pine forests are beyond exception, the best in the country, and furnish the principal material to complete the hull. Our direct communication with England offers the advantages to procure the fastenings. We have the raw material for canvass, and we have England on the one side, and Kentucky on the other, to furnish us with cordage. Here are the principal constituents within our own reach ; yet we are gravely told, we cannot build ships for ourselves—we must export the material to a distant State, expend our money among Northern mechanics, and then complain that our master mechanics at home do not employ more workmen from the North.

"The State of Maine loses none of her agricultural character by being extensively engaged in ship-building ; the one moves in harmony with the other, and each is extending its prosperity and influence throughout the State. What is there to prevent Georgia from embarking in this enterprize, and improving the advantages which nature has given her—she has the material and the employment after they are built—the obstacle then hangs on the labor—must we submit to it, and for ever acknowledge inability without applying the remedy ?

"Step by step we have gone forward, cautiously, in the several branches of manufacturing. We have seen them in their weak stages, and have fostered them into success—strengthened and extended their limits ; let us not tarry by the way, there are others equally as vital to our progress.

3.—COMMERCE OF NEW-ORLEANS.

STATEMENT OF THE RECEIPTS AND EXPORTS OF COTTON AND TOBACCO AT THE PORT OF NEW-ORLEANS IN EACH YEAR, FROM 1822–23 to 1848–49, A PERIOD OF TWENTY-SEVEN YEARS.

	Cotton.		Tobacco	
	Receipts.	Exports.	Exports.	Receipts.
1822–23	$161,959	$171,872	$16,292	$28,624
1823–24	141,524	143,843	25,262	25,910
1824–25	206,358	203,914	17,759	16,849
1825–26	248,981	259,681	18,242	18,231
1826–27	336,573	326,516	29,684	26,540
1827–28	295,853	304,073	29,443	35,098
1828–29	268,639	367,736	24,637	25,288
1829–30	362,977	351,237	32,438	28,028
1830–31	429,392	423,942	32,098	33,872
1831–32	345,646	358,104	31,174	35,056
1832–33	403.833	410,524	20,627	23,637
1833–34	467,984	461,026	25.871	25,210
1834–35	536,172	536,991	35,059	33,831
1835–36	495,442	490,495	50,558	41,604
1836–37	605,813	588,969	28,501	35,821
1837–38	742.726	738,313	37,588	35,555
1838–39	578,514	579,179	28,153	30,852
1839–40	954,445	949,320	43,827	40,436
1840–41	822,870	821,288	53,170	54,667
1841–42	740.155	749,267	67,555	68,058
1842–43	1,089,642	1,088,870	92,509	89,891
1843–44	910,854	895,375	82,435	81,249
1844–45	979,238	984,616	71,493	68,679
1845–46	1,053,633	1,054,857	72,896	62,045
1846–47	740,669	724,508	55,588	50,376
1847–48	1,213,805	1,201,807	55,882	60,364
1848–49	1,142,383	1,167,302	52,335	52,896
1849–50	837,723	838,591	60,304	57,955
Total	$17,114,696	$16,883,307	$1,191,374	$1,196,622

Upon the supposition that the average value of cotton and tobacco for the twenty-seven years above stated may be fairly estimated at $40 per bale for the former, and $70 per hogshead for the latter, it would give a total value for these two articles alone of $778,306,370.

4.—STATISTICS OF COTTON.

Mr. G. R. Porter, one of the Secretaries of the British Board of Trade, recently read a paper on Cotton, before the British Association, from which the following figures are obtained:

CONSUMPTION OF GREAT BRITAIN.

In 1800	lbs	56,010,732
" 1810, increased by	67,478,203	
" 1820, further increased by	19,183,720	
" 1830, " " "	42,287,797	
" 1840, " " "	328,526,548	
" 1849, " " "	1,182,981,008	
Whole consumption in 1849		775,468,908
At 400 lbs. to the bale, equal to	bales	1,932,692
Importations from Brazil, Surat, and all other parts of the world, in 1849		538,000
American kinds consumed in 1849		1,394,692
Consumed in United States in 1849		600,000
Do. on the Continent		1,000,000
Wants of the world from the United States		2,994,692
Average consumption in Great Britain per week, in 1848 and 1849		29,346

Mr. Porter proposes to escape from frequent "Cotton Famines," by extending the cultivation and manufacture of Flax, which he flatters himself, may, by the great improvement in machinery, be made capable of furnishing cheap clothing to the world.

5.—BANKS IN THE UNITED STATES.

We compile from the Boston Banker's Magazine, the following table, showing the condition of, and total number of the Banks in the United States:

	No. Banks.	Circulation.	Specie.	Capital.
Maine	32	2,300,000	424,000	3,148,000
New-Hampshire	22	1,700,000	150,000	2,205,000
Massachusetts	102	9,600,000	645,000	16,405,000
Boston	30	6,300,000	2,100,000	21,760,000
Vermont	27	2,300,000	120,000	2,195,000
Rhode Island	38	1,100,000	130,000	3,039,865
Providence	23	1,400,000	130,000	8,159,037
Connecticut	42	5,200,000	640,000	10,072,700
New-York	162	18,000,000	880,000	20,949,732
New-York City	28	6,400,000	10,740,000	27,300,330
New-Jersey	25	2,900,000	690,000	3,646,720
Pennsylvania	38	7,000,000	2,500,000	8,009,781
Philadelphia	15	4,130,000	4,000,000	10,518,600
Wisconsin	1	—	—	225,000
Texas	1	—	—	300,000
Maryland	12	1,200,000	400,000	1,997,079
Baltimore	12	2,068,000	1,127,000	7,075,794
Iowa	1	—	—	200,000
Mississippi	1	—	—	100,000
Virginia	35	7,000,000	2,300,000	9,913,100
North Carolina	19	3,500,000	1,600,000	3,650,000
South Carolina	14	6,090,000	2,200,000	11,431,183
Georgia	17	1,000,000	1,600,000	5,329,213
Ohio	57	10,366,000	2,750,000	7,425,171
Indiana	14	3,300,800	1,280,000	2,082 910
Kentucky	23	6,680,000	2,680,000	9,180,000
Tennessee	21	4,000,000	1,500,000	7,165,197
District of Columbia	4	900,000	300,000	1,182,300
Delaware	9	900,000	250,000	1,440,000
Missouri	6	2,600,000	1,900,000	1,258,751
Michigan	6	650,000	116,000	1,150,000
Louisiana	5	4,200,000	7,300,000	13,267,120
Alabama	2	—	—	200,000
Total	986	$121,183,000	$51,446,000	$230,897,555

6.—GROWTH OF THE WEST.

We extract some statistics from the report of the WESTERN CONVENTION lately held at Evansville, Indiana, which, in the main, is an able document, and shall be further quoted from in our pages, but which winds up with a flourish, that we do not question will frighten Virginia, South Carolina, Mississippi, Georgia, Alabama, etc., and the men in general who believe in *state rights and state sovereignty* entirely out of their propriety, *if they ever had any:*

"We speak what *we feel*, we speak what we know from association, *is the feeling* of our *whole people*, as the representatives of the WESTERN STATES here in convention assembled—we speak their *united* voice, the voice of all *sections*, of all *creeds*, of all *parties*, when we say, *that at all hazards, regardless of all consequences*, "Our Union *must* and SHALL be preserved."

[Now, in the names of all the Gods at once
Upon what *meat** doth this our Cæsar feed,
That he is grown so great?"]

* Shakspeare had not dreamed of the great *meat* resources of our north-western brethren. Truly, as Launcelot Gobbo has it: "This making of Christians will raise the price of hogs. If we all grow to be *pork eaters*, we shall not," &c., &c.—*Merchant of Venice.*

The Evansville Convention proposes a memorial to Congress for a survey of western mineral lands, for more thorough western postal arrangements, for internal improvements and snag-boats, for the manufacture of hemp in the states of its production, and for western armories.

But to the statistics of western growth:

"It was a remark of a distinguished Senator, in the Congress of the United States, on a recent memorable occasion, not more beautiful and appropriate than prophetic and true: "That no one could look over the face of this country at the present moment, no one could see where the population was the most dense and growing, without being ready to admit, and compelled to admit, that ere long, '*America would be in the valley of the Mississippi.*' To those who have been observers of the rapid increase in population and power, within the last thirty years, of *this* section of our Union, it could not fail to have been a matter of observation as to our constant growth in all the elements which constitute a great nation, as well as a subject of speculation what were to be the results of such a progression in thirty years to come. In the first period, from the territory bordering on the waters of the Ohio and Mississippi, four great states have been added to the confederacy, Missouri, Arkansas, Iowa and Wisconsin. Within the period of twenty years, from 1820 to 1840, the increase of population in the Western States, including Michigan, was four millions two hundred and fifty-seven thousand four hundred and forty-six—these states having in 1820 a population of one million eight hundred thousand seven hundred and eight, and in 1840, five million fifty-eight thousand one hundred and fifty-four. From 1830 to 1840, the same states show an increase of two million forty-seven thousand four hundred and seventy-two—their population being in 1830, three million ten thousand six hundred and eighty-two, against five million fifty-eight thousand one hundred and fifty-four in 1840. Taking, then, the census of 1820 and 1840 as a guide for that of 1850, the only one we can have until the census for the present year is taken, and admitting that the increase of population has been no greater the last ten years than it was the preceding ten, we had, on the first of June, in the Western States, seven million five thousand six hundred and twenty-six souls. Taking the same standard for our basis as it regards the New-England, Middle, and Southern States, let us see what proportion the increase of population in the Western States will bear to the other three great sections of the country. In New-England in 1830, the population was one million nine hundred and fifty-four thousand seven hundred and seventeen; in 1840, two million two hundred and thirty-four thousand eight hundred and ninety-two—increase one million two hundred and eighty thousand one hundred and five—making the whole population of New-England in 1850, three millions five hundred and fourteen thousand nine hundred and twenty-seven. In the Middle States, embracing New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware, the population in 1830 was three million four hundred and thirty-five thousand eight hundred and twenty-eight; in 1840, four million six hundred and four thousand three hundred and forty-five—being an increase of one million six hundred and eighty-five thousand five hundred and twenty-seven. Admit the same increase for the last ten years, and the Middle States would have, one the *first of June last*, a population of five million six hundred and seventy-two thousand eight hundred and seventy-two. The Southern States, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, District of Columbia, and Florida, including their slave population, had in 1830, four million two hundred and thirty thousand six hundred and eighty-one inhabitants; in 1840, five million one hundred and sixty-six thousand and thirty-two; the same increase for the last ten years would give them on the first of June last, six million one hundred and one thousand four hundred and thirty-six inhabitants.

"The population, then, in 1850, in these great divisions of the republic will probably show as follows:

	Population.
Western States	7,005,626
Southern States	6,101,436
Middle States	5,672,872
New-England States	3,514,927

Showing an excess of population of the Western States over the Southern, excluding Texas, of nine hundred and four thousand two hundred, and less than New-England and the Middle States of two million one hundred and eighty-two thousand one hundred and seventy-three. But, owing to the great increase of the Western States, in comparison to others for the last ten years, judging from the increase of some of them for the ten preceding ones, we think it is a safe calculation to add *twenty per cent.* on the increase of the Western States for the last ten years over that of the preceding; if this is done, and we believe the increase in some of them will be shown to be much larger than that, the census of the Western States for 1850 will show nearly eight millions of souls, or somewhat more than *one-third of the whole population of the United States.*"

7.—RESOURCES OF THE SOUTH.

B. Boykin, Esq., of Mobile, delivered in December last, an able address before the Southern Rights' Association of that city, in which occurs the following interesting passages:

"A disruption of the Union, carrying with it no little acerbity of feeling, would result in breaking up in a great measure the present system of internal trade—a trade which has made the North what it is, and which is the foundation of its wealth and prosperity. The following statistical facts will illustrate the immense loss to the North by the abandonment by the South of its connection with that section. They are worthy of the consideration of those who seek our overthrow, and by consequence their own ruin."

"*Direct Trade.*—The New-York Courier, in an article on the consequences of disunion, condenses some important commercial figures and facts. The product of the slave states it puts down as follows:

	1849.	1848.	1847.
Cotton	$95,250,000	$74,620,000	$72,905,000
Tobacco	6,616,741	8,756,360	11,008,200
Rice	3,841,964	3,575,895	3,091,215
Naval Stores	1,624,190	1,864,319	1,638,612
	$107,332,895	$88,816,574	$88,803,027
Sugar and Molasses	18,417,500	16,486,000	22,746,430
Total	$125,750,395	$105,302,574	$111,549,457

"Of which, there were exported to foreign countries, during the same period, derived from official returns, viz:

	1849.	1848.	1847.
Cotton	$66,396,967	$61,998,294	$53,415,878
Tobacco	5,804,207	7,551,122	7,242,086
Rice	2,569,362	2,331,824	3,605,896
Naval Stores	845,161	752,303	759,221
Total	$75,615,700	$72,633,543	$65,023,051

"Here it is shown that the aggregate amount of the exports of Southern industry made to foreign countries within three years, was $212,273,294.

"How much of all this, does the reader suppose, was imported by the South! Why, as shown by our tables, only $48,441,719! The rest, $164,835,575, went through the hands of the North. How much was left in those hands, and how many hundreds of thousands of people in the South would this have maintained! How many cities would it have helped to build! How much would it have served to reduce the *per capita* amount of taxation which we pay to our States!

"Our tables show that within the three years above-named, the value of the whole amount exported from the free states of materials of their own production, was $167,209,214. That is, the South furnished to the exporting mercantile enterprise of the North within a fraction of as much as the whole of the exportable industry of that section.

"The total value of all the imports into the United States within the three years, is stated as follows:

	1849.	1848.	1847.
New-York	$92,736,497	$94,525,141	$84,167,352
Boston	26,327,874	28,647,707	34,477,008
Other Northern ports	14,716,030	14,200,043	11,161,667
Total North	$133,780,361	$137,373,891	$129,806,027
New-Orleans	8,077,910	9,380,439	9,222,969
Charleston	1,310,591	1,485,299	1,580,658
Other Southern ports	4,688,577	6,760,298	5,934,987
Total South	$14,077,078	$17,626,036	$16,738,605

"Here it will be seen that the aggregate value of all the imports into the North was $400,959,279; while the total value of the imports into the South was only $48,441,719! Yet, within this period, the South furnished of the exports, values to the amount of $213,277,294!"

8.—COMMERCE OF THE THE UNITED STATES.

DOMESTIC EXPORTS YEAR ENDING 30TH JUNE, 1850.

PRODUCTS OF THE SEA.

Oil, sperm	$788,794
Whale, and other fish	672,640
Whalebone	646,483
Sperm candles	260,107
Dried, smoked, and pickled fish	456,794

PRODUCTS OF THE FORESTS.

Staves, shingles, boards, hewn timber, and other lumber	$2,544,906
Masts and spars	52,109
Oak bark, and other dye-wood	205,771
Manufactures of wood	1,948,752
	$4,751,538
Tar, pitch, rosin, and turpentine	1,142,713
Ashes, pot and pearl	572,870
Skins and furs	852,466
Ginseng	122,916

MANUFACTURED ARTICLES.

Cotton, printed and colored	$606,631
" uncolored	3,774,407
All other manufactures of	353,386
	$4,734,424
Iron, pig, bar, and nail	154,210
" castings	79,318
All manufactures of	1,677,792
	$1,911,320

PRODUCTS OF AGRICULTURE.

Beef, tallow, hides, horned cattle		$1,605,608
Butter and cheese		1,215,463
Pork, bacon, lard, hogs		7,550,287
Horses and mules		139,494
Sheep		15,753
Wool		22,778
Wheat, bushels	608,661	643,745
Flour, barrels	1,385,448	7,098,570
Indian corn, bushels	6,595,092	3,892,193
Indian meal, barrels	259,442	760,611
Rye meal, barrels	69,903	216,076
Rice, tierces	127,069	2,631,557
Rye, oats, and pulse		121,191
Ship's bread		334,123
Potatoes		99,333
Apples		24,974
		$26,371,756
Cotton, Sea Island	lbs. 8,236,463	
Cotton, Uplands	627,145,141	$72,984,616
Leaf tobacco, hhds	145,729	9,951,023
All other agricultural products		152,365
		$82,038,004

RECAPITULATION.

Products, sea		$2,824,818
" forest		7,442,503
" agriculture		82,038,004
Manufactures enumerated		6,645,744
Other manufactures		8,498,641
Coal, tons	38,740	$167,090
Salt, bush	319,175	75,103
Ice, bush		107,018
		349,211
Gold and silver specie		2,046,679
Raw produce not specified		679,556
Total value of domestic exports,		$136,946,912

9.—DIRECT TRADE OF THE SOUTH WITH EUROPE.

This result is now engaging the serious attention of Southern cities, and will, no doubt, heaven be praised, soon be achieved. The minds of our merchants are aroused, and New-Orleans will find it necessary to take a part with the other Southern cities, or lose her controlling position forever.

The Virginians are proposing a line of steamships to Europe; the Carolinians have actually applied for the charter of a steamship company to Liverpool, and are subscribing the capital; the Mississippians are proposing a *mercantile convention of the whole South*, and have appointed delegates to meet in Charleston. These are ominous signs of the times, and are strongly shadowed forth in the following extracts from influential Southern papers :—

"If there is one question which should engage the attention of our merchants and capitalists at this time more than another, it is the speedy establishment of a direct line of packets or steam vessels between Charleston and Liverpool. It has always been a subject of wonder to us, why this kind of enterprize has not met with more support from our Commercial community—a class of gentlemen distinguished for their energy, probity, and enlarged patriotism,—although much, far too much of the business of our metropolis has been suffered to pass into the hands of Northern men, many of whom would at any time willingly sacrifice Charleston to build up any Northern city, yet there has always been a sufficient amount of Southern capital and influence in that city, to establish beyond contingency, a direct line to some European port.

"We are aware that some interest has been manifested, and some effort made within the past few years to effect this object without success; but the only difficulty, as we understood, was the inability to procure the patronage of the Post Office Department of the Government, which was regarded necessary to place us on equally advantageous terms with the Cunard line of steamers. Subsequently we have seen the Collins' line enter the list, and so far, with eminent success, compete for the brilliant prize of successful investment,—and again we hear of Philadelphia and Baltimore looking to their own interests, and preparing to embark in this rich argosy, and to bring home a share of the golden fleece; but Charleston contents herself with the semi-annual return of a few old-fashioned tubs, or of receiving, through Northern bottoms, Northern ports, Northern custom-houses, Northern merchants, her meagre supply of foreign manufactured goods. We repeat the question: Why is it, (for as yet we have heard no satisfactory reason,) that we are still the commercial vassals of the North?

"At this time, especially, does it concern us to establish our commercial independence. Let there be a company formed at once—let our own live oak keels give employment to Southern builders and Southern seamen, and let Southern enterprize and Southern energy reap the rich reward. Let this be the next tie that shall be severed, and we shall then see the Queen City of the South arise, and shake off the deep sleep which has so long oppressed her. We shall then see our inland towns reflecting back the substantial evidences of increasing prosperity and wealth, and even our desert fields to bloom and blossom as the rose.

"Since writing the above, we have seen a notice in the Charleston Mercury, that application will be made to the next Legislature to charter the South Carolina and European Steamship Company. Success to the movers.

"Several years ago a Convention was held in the city of Charleston, for the purpose of considering the feasibility and advantage of establishing a direct trade between this and the commercial cities of Europe. A very elaborate report, prepared, as it was thought, by Robert Y. Hayne, was submitted, in which the advantages of such a trade were clearly shown, and encouragement held out to capitalists to invest in the enterprize. Delegates were sent from all parts of the State, and Georgia and Florida were also represented. It seemed at that time that South-Carolina was arousing from her lethargic slumber, to grasp the benefits which were pouring on the North, and gradually impoverishing the agricultural States of the South. After results have shown that her people were

not then fully awake, but that the movement made by her on the occasion referred to, was but the momentary restlessness of the sleeper to seize the airy nothing evoked by the spell of a capricious fancy.

"The time is now come when it is no longer a debateable question, whether we of the South should do our carrying trade or not. The tide of Northern fanaticism and hatred is sweeping onward, and the Union of our fathers has no longer any existence. The spirit of the age is fearfully aggressive, and in a little while the sovereignty of the States will be but a dim shadow, signifying nothing. It is of vast importance to our future destiny to be commercially independent of the North. The vast result to be obtained by a system of direct trade can easily be conceived by those who have not carefully examined the subject. Among the numerous advantages we might mention in our commercial independence, encouragement of home laborers, reduction of price of imported merchandize, and consequently, increased gain to the producer, and renewed impulse to internal improvements, whereby every portion of the State would be brought into close and intimate connection, and facilities offered to the transportation of produce at merely nominal rates, to say nothing of the developement of the resources of the State, agricultural, mineral, &c., which would necessarily follow. We earnestly commend this subject to the consideration of the people, and the fostering care of the Legislature."

10.—STATISTICS U. S. COMMERCE.

Exhibiting the value of certain articles imported during the years ending on the 30th of June, 1844, 1845, 1846, 1848, 1849 and 1850, (after deducting the re-exportations) and the amount of duty which accrued in each during the same periods respectively:

	1844.		1845.	
Articles.	Value.	Duties.	Value.	Duties.
Woolens	9,408,279	3,313,495	10,504,423	3,731,014
Cottons	13,236,830	4,850,731	13,360,729	4,908,272
Hempen goods	865,427	213,861	801,661	198,642
Iron, and manufact'e of	2,396,760	1,607,113	4,075,142	2,415,003
Sugar	6,897,245	4,597,093	4,049,708	2,555,075
Hemp, unmanufacturee	261,913	101,338	140,372	55,122
Salt	892,112	654,881	883,359	678,069
Coal	203,681	433,845	187,962	130,221
Total, dollars	34,161,247	15,472,358	34,003,356	14,671,418

	1846.		1848.	
Articles.	Value.	Duties.	Value.	Duties.
Woolens	9,935,925	3,480,797	15,061,102	4,196,007
Cottons	12,857,422	4,865,483	17,205,417	4,166,673
Hempen goods	696,888	138,394	696,900	121,380
Iron, and manufact'e of	3,660,581	1,629,581	7,080,473	2,118,141
Sugar	4,397,239	2,713,866	8,775,220	2,632,567
Hemp, unmanufactured	180,221	82,282	180,335	54,100
Salt	748,566	509,244	1,027,656	205,531
Coal	336,691	254,149	426,997	128,099
Total, dollars	32,813,533	13,653,796	50,344,100	13,022,498

	1849		1850.	
Articles.	Value.	Duties.	Value.	Duties.
Woolens	13,505,720	3,726,989	16,900,916	4,682,457
Cottons	15,182,518	3,789,294	19,685,936	4,898,475
Hempen goods	460,338	92,067	520,232	104,046
Iron, and manufact'e of	9,189,743	2,656,923	16,232,013	4,896,604
Sugar	7,576,303	2,272,891	6,332,068	1,899,620
Hemp, unmanufactured	478,232	143,470	574,783	172,435
Salt	1,424,529	284,906	1,227,518	245,504
Coal	387,370	116,211	361,855	108,557
Total, dollars	48,204,750	13,162,751	61,835,321	16,980,698

11.—COMMERCE AND TONNAGE U. S., 1820-1850.

Years.	Total Imports.	Imports consumed, exclusive of specie.	Domestic produce exported exclusive of specie.	Foreign merchan. exported exclusive of specie.	Total Exports.	Tonnage.
1821	62,583,724	43,696,405	43,671,394	10,824,429	64,974,382	1,298,958
1822	83,241,541	68,367,425	49,879,079	11,504,270	72,160,281	1,324,699
1823	77,579,267	51,308,936	47,155,408	21,172,435	74,699,030	1,336,566
1824	80,549,007	53,846,567	50,649,500	18,321,605	75,986,657	1,389,163
1825	96,340,075	66,395,722	66,944,745	23,793,588	99,535,388	1,423,112
1826	84,974,477	57,652,577	52,449.855	20,440,934	77,595,322	1,534,191
1827	79,484,063	54,901,108	57,878,117	16,431,880	82,324,827	1,620,608
1828	88,509,824	66,975,475	49,976,632	14,044,608	72,264,686	1,741,392
1829	74,492,527	54,741,571	55,087,307	12,347,344	72,358,571	1,269,798
1830	70,876,920	49,575,099	58,524,878	13,145,857	73,849,508	1,101,776
1831	103,191,124	82,808,110	59,218,583	13,077,069	81,300,583	1,267,847
1832	101,029,266	75,327,688	61,726,529	19,794,074	87,176,943	1,439,450
1833	108,118,311	83,470,067	69,950,826	17,577,876	90,140,433	1,606,151
1834	126,521,332	86,973,147	80,623,662	21,036,553	104,336,973	1,758,907
1835	149,895,742	122,007,974	100,459,481	14,756.321	121,693,577	1,824.940
1836	189,980,035	158,811,392	106,570,492	17,767,762	128,663,040	1,882,103
1837	140,989,217	113,310,571	94,280,825	17,162,232	117,419,376	1,896,686
1838	113,717,404	86,552,598	95,560,880	9,417.690	108,486,616	1,995,640
1839	162,092,132	145,870,816	101,625,533	10,626,140	121,028,416	2,096,380
1840	107,141,519	86,250,335	111,660,561	12,008.371	132,085,946	2,180,774
1841	127,146,177	114,776,309	103,636,236	8,181,225	121,851,503	2,130,744
1842	100,162,087	87,996,318	91,799,242	8,078,753	104,691,534	2,092,391
1843	64,753,799	37,294,129	77,686,354	5,139,335	84,346,480	2,158,603
1844	108,435,035	96,390,548	99,531,774	6,214,058	111,200,046	2,280,095
1845	117,254.564	105,599,541	98,455,330	7,584,781	114,646,606	2,417,002
1846	121,691,797	110,048,859	101,718,042	7,865,206	113,488,516	2,562,085
1847	146.545,638	116,257,595	150,574,844	9,160,754	152,648,622	2,839,046
1848	154,998,928	140,651,902	130,203,709	7,986,802	154,032,131	3,154,042
1849	147,857,439	132,565,108	131,710,081	8,641,091	145,755,820	3,334,015
1850	178,136,818	184,032,033	134,900,232	9,475,493	151,898,720	3,535,454

12.—SUGAR TRADE.

PRODUCT OF SUGAR IN THE WORLD.

Spanish possessions	lbs. 671,866,800
English possessions	800,240,142
French possessions, including beet sugar	137,333,350
Holland possessions	120,000,000
United States	200,000,000
Brazil	260,000,000
Danish and Swedish possessions	20,000,000
German and Belgian possessions, including beet sugar	30,000,000
Mexico, Guatamala and Colombia, Venezuela, Peru, Egypt and China	182,300,538
Total pounds produced	2,421,740,830

CONSUMPTION OF SUGAR IN THE WORLD.

	Population.	Lbs. to each person.	Pounds.
Spain, and its possessions	17,830,172	12	213,962,064
England, Scotland and Ireland	28,944,843	21	607,841,703
English possessions in America, including the Antilles	2,371,763	12	28,461,156
Germany	38,715,600	5	193,578,000
Holland, and its possessions	7,294,318	15	109,414,770
France, and its possessions	36,000,000	8	288,000,000
Belgium	4,242,600	9	38,183,400
United States	20,000,000	18	360,000,000
Mexico and Guatamala	9,000,000	6	54,000,000
Brazil	5,000,000	16	80,000,000
The rest of South America	9,273,640	6	55,641,840
Portugal, and its possessions	5,162,000	4	20,648,000
Italy	22,577,459	2	45,154,918
Switzerland	2,188,009	2	4,376,018
Denmark, and possessions	2,232,965	6	13.397,790
Sweden and Norway	4.304.599	3	12,913.797
Russia	62,500,000	1½	93,750,000
Turkey and Egypt	20,000,000	1	20,000,000
China	227,000,000	3/16	42,562,500
The rest of the world	44,166,976	1/32	1,380,218
Population of the world of those who consume sugar	707,279,600		2,421,740,830

13.—AFRICAN SLAVE-TRADE.

The London Anti-slavery Reporter publishes copious extracts from recent Parliamentary documents relating to the African Slave-Trade, from which it appears that the traffic, after all the efforts which have been made to put it down by force, has suffered little abatement.

According to the report of the Slave-Trade Committee, the average numbers of slaves, (with the per cent. amount of loss,) exported from Africa to America, were as follows, in the periods designated:

Dates.	Annual average number exported.	Average casualties during the voyage. Per Cent.	Amount.
1798 to 1805	85,000	14	12,000
1805 to 1810	85,000	14	12,000
1810 to 1815	93,000	14	13,000
1815 to 1817	106,000	25	26,600
1817 to 1819	106,000	25	26,600
1819 to 1825	103,000	25	25,800
1825 to 1830	125,000	25	31,000
1830 to 1835	78,500	25	19,600
1835 to 1840	135,810	25	33,900

The following table shows the numbers (with the loss) exported from Africa to America, every year since 1840:

Years.	Numbers.	Loss. Per Cent.	Amount.
1840	64,114	25	16,068
1841	43,097	25	11,274
1842	28,400	25	7,100
1843	55,062	25	13,765
1844	54,102	25	13,525
1845	36,758	25	9,189
1846	76,117	25	19,029
1847	84,356	25	21,089

So it appears that the slave-trade was as actively carried on in 1847, as from 1798 to 1810—while the casualties or loss attending the traffic had increased from 14 per cent. to 25, showing that while the vigorous means used to suppress the traffic had failed of this end, they had aggravated its horrors.

Brazil is the principal mart. The total number of slaves imported into Brazil, from 1840 to 1847, inclusive, was, 249,800; the importation into the Spanish colonies, for the same period, was, 52,027. According to the report of Mr. Westwood, acting consul at Rio Janeiro, there were in 1847, departures from that port of slavers—11 under the Brazilian flag, 6 under the Portuguese, 15 under the American, 5 under the French, 3 under the Hamburgese—in all, 40; arrivals—4 under the Brazilian flag, 4 under the Portuguese, 15 under the American, 4 under the French, 1 under the Swedish, 3 under the Hamburgese—in all, 31. It is mainly by the use of the American flag that the pirates are enabled to baffle the vigilance of the British cruizers.

14.—COTTON FROM 1825 TO 1850.

BY PROF. MC'CAY, GEORGIA.*

Instead of our annual review of the cotton trade for a single year, we propose to extend our examinations back to a longer period. For this purpose we have collected in our statistical tables, the production, consumption-stocks, and prices of cotton for each year from 1840 to 1850, and for the more important particulars of the trade, we have gone back as far as 1825. This period of twenty-five years we have divided into intervals of five years, and given the average for each, noting the rate of increase or decrease for each country separately. By taking average results, we get clear of the fluctuations arising from short crops

* The reader will find our previous cotton tables for many years back, very complete in our published volumes.—ED.

and other disturbing causes, and are able to observe the general progress free from those temporary variations which prevent us judging accurately the real changes that are taking place. In this review we shall see a very prominent place assigned to our country. The United States is now not only the largest producer, but the largest consumer of cotton; our production has advanced with such rapid strides, that we have distanced all competitors; the cotton goods worn by our people exceed now the amount used by Great Britain, and all her dependencies in the four quarters of the globe; and the demands of our manufactories have increased, with much greater rapidity than those of any country in the world.

SUPPLY.

In the table of supplies (table I. at the end of this article,) we may observe that while other countries have been nearly stationary, our production has advanced with great rapidity. In twenty years our average crop has increased from 848,000 bales to 2,351,000, or nearly three hundred fold. If the period of twenty-five years, from 1825 to 1850, be divided into five equal intervals, the increase for each will be found to be 27, 37, 38, and 15 per cent. In the same time, the production of all other countries has only risen from 383,000 to 440,000 bales, having absolutely declined in the last five years over 16 per cent. In the first period of five years, the crop of the United States constituted 68 per cent. of the whole; in the second, 74; in the third, 77; in the fourth, 80; and in the fifth, 84 per cent. of the whole. As our bags have increased very much in weight, and are now much larger than those of other countries, our advance has been still greater, and our rank still higher, than these figures indicate.

If the table of consumption, (table II.,) be examined, it will appear that our progress is none the less rapid in comparison with other countries. In the same twenty years, the deliveries to our manufactories have advanced 325 per cent., viz.: from 127,000 bales to 539,000; while in the same time the advance of Great Britain has been only 125 per cent. viz.: from 653,000 bales to 1,472,000. In each one of these periods, our rate of progress has been more than twice as rapid as hers; and though the absolute amount of our consumption is yet far below that consumed by the English manufacturers, yet in the last five years our increase has been 176,000 bales, while theirs has been only 180,000. At present our consumption is 37 per cent. of the English, while twenty years ago it was only 19 per cent.

France, during all this period, has remained nearly stationary. Twenty years ago her consumption was 257,000—now it is only 363,000. In the last five years she has gone backwards, the decline having amounted to 58,000 bales. From 1825 to 1830 the deliveries to her manufactories were double those of the United States, now they are 33 per cent. less than ours. Her rank, compared with Great Britain, and with nearly every other country in Europe, has also declined.

In Spain, Belgium, Holland. Germany, and Russia, the increase has been nearly as rapid as in the United States. In the last five years their advance, (table III.,) has been 46 per cent., ours 49 per cent. Their rank in the cotton consuming countries is yet low, but their rapid progress will soon bring them to a more important position. At present their consumption is 34 per cent. of that of Great Britain, and the time is not far distant when, taken together, will equal her.

Twenty years ago, the comparative rank of the United States, Great Britain, France, and the rest of the continent, was in proportion to the numbers 11, 55, 22, and 12; in the last five years, the per centage of each has been 19, 51, 13, and 17. If France be left out of the comparison, the rank of each twenty years ago, was as 13, 70, and 17; now it is as 21, 59, and 20.

Although Great Britain requires for her manufactories more than half of all the cotton worked up in Europe and America, the amount actually used by her people, including all that is exported to India, British America, Australia, and all the colonial dependencies of Great Britain, is less than the amount used in the United States. This has been shown to be true for the last four years, and the present year, although it exhibits an apparent decline in our home con-

sumption, forms no exception to this result. The enlarged imports of cotton goods imported into our sea-ports, compensate in part for the falling off in the wants of our factories.

If we compare the progress in the demand and supply, it will be seen that during the last five years the consumption has increased much faster than the production—the one having advanced 19 per cent., and the other only 9. This might be inferred from the decline in the stocks, but it will be more satisfactory to consider the average production and consumption of the last ten years. The average amount taken by the manufacturers from 1840 to 1845, was 2,414,000 bales, and from 1845 to 1850, 2,869,000 bales, showing an increase of 455,000 bales; while the supply advanced from 2,561,000 bales to 2,791,000, with an increase of only 230,000 bales. When it is remembered that the last period embraces the year 1847, when from the revolutions in Europe, the consumption declined over 600,000 bales, and the years 1845 and 1849, when the American crop so far exceeded its usual average, this result will be more striking and important. The table of stocks, (table IV.,) confirms and establishes this same result. At the end of 1844, the cotton on hand in Europe was 1,101,000 bales; at the end of 1849, it was only 646,000 bales.

It may further be observed, that the increase in the supply during the last five years, has been slower than the natural increase of laborers. The advance in the one has been only 9 per cent., and in the other 12 or 13. As many new hands have been brought to the Southern States during this period, the rate of increase in the working force of the cotton growing States has been still greater than 12 or 13 per cent. This excess has occurred at no former period. From 1825 to 1850 the increments for each period of five years, have been 18, 32, 33, and 9 per cent.—always above the increments of population, except in the last interval. It follows from this that labor and capital have found other modes of employment more attractive and profitable than the raising of cotton. It is well known that this has been to some extent true in the United States, but it has been more evident and striking in India and Brazil. In these countries, the crop has declined 16 per cent. in the last five years. From Brazil it has declined regularly for the last twenty years, and the recent advance in coffee will tend to divert still more labor from the production of cotton. The abolition of the discriminating duty in favor of East India cotton by Sir Robert Peel, and the very low prices which have recently prevailed, have not only stopped any increase in the imports of Surat and Madras, but turned the current in the opposite direction. The advance in the fifteen years before 1845, was 10, 80, and 60 per cent. in each interval of five years, but from 1845 to 1850, the decline has been 24 per cent.

It may fairly be deduced from this, that the prices of the last five years have not afforded sufficient encouragement to production, and that the planters may now look for a permanent improvement in prices. The table of prices, (table V.,) shows that for the last five years, the average price at the sea-ports of the United States, has been seven cents and three mills, and it may be expected with confidence that they will not rule so low hereafter—that the average rates will not merely experience a temporary rise, as if caused by the short crop and the small stocks of the present year, but a permanent and continued advance.

The table of stocks, (table IV.,) represents the amounts on hand in the sea-ports of Europe continually increasing from 1840 to 1845, while during the four years ending in 1849, they have been nearly stationary. Comparing them with the wants of the manufacturers, as is done in the column which contains the number of weeks that the stocks would supply the consumption of the factories, the supply was a trifle lower at the close of 1849, after the receipt of the largest crop ever brought to market, than it had been during the last ten years. The number of bales was a little greater than at the close of 1848, but the time this stock would supply the wants of the manufacturers was a little less.

After this review of the history of the trade in cotton for the last ten years, if we remember that the production of 1850 has been much below the average of the last five years, and that the prospects of the next year's crop are but little better, it is evident that the present advance in cotton is founded on no speculative basis, but on the unchangeable laws of supply and demand. Two short

crops are succeeding each other, while the stocks on hand are very much reduced. To this it may be added, that everything is favorable to a large consumption. Peace everywhere prevails, except in the unimportant Duchies of Schleswig-Holstein. Money is abundant, and the currency everywhere undisturbed. Food is very cheap. The present harvest of Europe, as well as the last, is much above the average. Thus, while stocks are low, and the supply small, the demand is large. Prices, therefore, must maintain a high level, unless commotions in France, or some unforeseen event of commanding importance, interfere with the regular operations of commerce.

In considering the supply and demand of the coming year, we must, therefore, base all our estimates on high prices. The receipts from India and Brazil, and the consumption in Europe and America, will all be affected by this fact. If the advance were slight, it would not experience any sensible check, but when the price has risen to its present rate, (13½ cents. for middling fair, Savannah, October 23d,) an advance of 85 per cent. over the average of the last five years, the amount purchased, even in our country, may be expected to decline.

PROSPECT FOR 1851.

The supply for 1851 will probably exceed that of 1850, not only from the United States, but from India and Brazil. The past season here has been unfavorable for the growth of cotton, but its disasters, especially in the west, have not been as severe as in the preceding year. In South-Carolina and Georgia there will be a decided decline. The late cold spring, and the long drought in June and July, left the plant small and the bolls few and scattering. The severe storm on the 24th of August blew out on the ground much open cotton, and prostrated and twisted the stalks so much, that there has been no late crop of forms to mature in October. September was a beautiful season for gathering, and so was much of October. There are some plantations where the crop is very fine. The hot summer favored a rapid growth, and repaired in part the injury done by a late spring. The general drought was, at some places, relieved by local showers, which brought out some superior crops. The amount of land planted was greater than ever. The receipts at Charleston and Savannah will also be increased by the extension of the Georgia Railroad to the Tennessee River. Were it not for this last cause a falling off of 100,000 bales might be anticipated. With this the deficiency will not probably exceed 70,000 or 80,000, and the receipts of these two ports may be expected to reach 650,000 bales. From Alabama the reports have not been so disastrous. The spring was late, and the stand poor, but the dry summer prevented the ravages of the worm which had done so much damage the preceding year. The river floods had also done harm last season, and these they have escaped. The prairie lands have not suffered so much with rust as before. On the Tombigbee and also on the Black Warrior, the prospects of the planters are very much above those of last year. On the Alabama, the promise is about the same as last year. Still the disasters have been severe, and the crop will be below an average. An increase of 90,000 or 100,000 bales in the receipts at Mobile, including the Montgomery shipments to New-Orleans, may with confidence be anticipated. From Florida a slight increase may be looked for. The amount of land planted has been considerably enlarged, and the drought has not been as general as in the eastern part of the cotton region. At New-Orleans and in Texas a gain may be looked for. The failure last year was so great, that it is almost impossible to expect a like deficiency again. From Louisiana, Arkansas, and the greater part of Mississippi, the reports have been better than last year. The early frost of October 6th injured not a little of the cotton as far north as Memphis, but in general even in Tennessee the plant remained green and flourishing, till the general frost at the close of the month. The production of Tennessee and North Alabama will fall below that of last year, and a portion of this will not reach New-Orleans. The crop was everywhere backward, but the hot, dry summer helped to repair this damage, and by keeping off the caterpillar and boll worm, permitted the forms to mature. The severe storms that did so much harm in Florida and the Atlantic States, did not extend so far to the west. The

season for gathering has been very fine, and the time of frost late enough to mature nearly every boll that could make cotton. The average receipts at New-Orleans for four years past have been 943,000 bales, and this period includes two short and two full crops. For the present year I would estimate them at 850,000 bales. Combining these estimates, the whole supply from the United States will amount to 2,200,000 bales, (see table VI.,) which is about 100,000 in advance of the last crop, but considerably below the average of the last five years.

The receipts from India have increased very much during the present year under the stimulus of high prices, and they are destined to advance still more for the coming season. The purchases now making in Bombay for the English market are reported to be large, and when the new crop begins to arrive at the sea-ports, the current will turn still more strongly towards England. Not only is their production enlarged by high prices in Europe, but a larger portion of the crop is diverted from China, and from domestic use for the western market. The average imports into Great Britain for the last three years, have been 211,000 bales, but for the first nine months of this year they have reached 128,000 bales for Liverpool alone, and for the whole year, for all the ports, they will probably reach 300,000 bales. For 1851 not less than 325,000 bales may be anticipated. This is higher, much higher, than any former year. The year 1841 was the largest before 1850, and then the amount was 275,000 bales. The high prices that are now prevailing, and that are likely to prevail for the present season, authorize us to expect an increase even over the present year. (Table VII.)

From Brazil, Egypt, and other places, an advance over the usual average may also be looked for. The average imports into England from 1845 to 1849 were 175,000 bales, but for the present year the amount will exceed 260,000 bales, and for 1851 will be still larger. (Table VIII.) If we estimate them at 275,000, the whole supply from all these sources, (table IX.,) will reach 2,800,000 bales.

In reference to the consumption, we may remark, that the purchases for our home manufactories have declined during the present year over 30,000 bales. The high price of the raw material, the low duties on foreign goods, and the immense imports of cotton fabrics from England have caused this retrograde movement. In 1849 there was a falling off of 14,000 bales, so that our consumption is now 44,000 bales below that of 1848. Doubtless the stocks in the hands of the manufacturers are very small, and a slight advance in goods would set all the mills at work again. The universal prosperity of the country forbids us to expect the extension, or even the continuance of this depression. For 1851 I would estimate the demand at 500,000 bales, which is 11,000 above the consumption of the present year, (table X.,) and 13,000 below the average of the last three.

In Great Britain the falling off in the purchases of the manufacturers have been very slight, (table XI.,) and as the reported purchases last year were 80,000 or 90,000 bales above the actual deliveries to the manufacturers, the real deficiency is less than the apparent. For the present year the consumption in Great Britain will not be below 1,500,000 bales against 1,588,000 in 1849, and 1,491,000 in 1848. Everything has been favorable to a large consumption except the price of the raw material. Money has been abundant—food of all kinds cheap—and labor well rewarded. These elements of prosperity have not been confined to Great Britain, and therefore, her exports of cotton goods have been unprecedently large. The home and foreign demand being both good, the factories have run full time in spite of the high price of cotton. This never occurred before, and cannot be expected again with any considerable confidence. At every former period an advance in the raw material has checked the demands of the factories, and lessened the purchases of the consumers. For the coming year everything is fully as favorable as the last; and if these favorable tendencies have counteracted the tendency of high prices in the raw material, it will be proper to expect the same for 1851 as for 1850. We may, therefore, set down 1,500,000 bales as the probable English consumption for the next year.

In France there has been a decided decline, (table XII.,) in the deliveries to the manufacturers. Our exports have fallen from 368,000 bales to 290,000, and the stocks on hand on the 1st of October were almost exactly the same as last year. The purchases at Havre for the first nine months of the present year, have been 249,000 bales, against 290,000 in 1849. From these figures we cannot estimate the consumption of American cotton for the present year higher than 300,000 bales, against 351,000 for 1849. No advance on this can be expected for the next year, nor is there any reason to anticipate any appreciable decline.

For the rest of Europe, we have the exports from the United States for the present year 194,000 bales, and the exports from Liverpool up to October 11th, 193,000 bales. The whole English exports of 1849 were 254,000 bales, and as their amount on October 12th was 21,000 more this year than last, the whole exports for the year from all the ports will probably reach 275,000 bales, making the total supply from these two countries of 460,000 bales. As the stocks on hand on the continent last year were very low, it is impossible to reduce them much lower. They are now, however, at several ports lower than last year, so that the consumption will probably exceed 469,000 bales. As this is a decline of over 100,000 bales from 1849, it is not to be expected that so low a limit can be reached for the year 1851. Heretofore their progress has been forward and rapid, and were it not for high prices this would continue. If we estimate their wants for 1851 at 500,000 bales, we have the total consumption, (table XIII.,) at 2,800,000 bales—the same as the supply. As the stocks are now much lower than last year, (table XIV.,) and as they were then very low, they will bear no farther reduction without a material advance in prices. On the contrary, any decline in price would immediately permit the consumption to expand, not only in France and the rest of the continent, but even in England. We may expect, therefore, that the present high range of prices will be maintained.

The review that has been taken of the supply and the demand shows that the present advance in cotton is the result of no speculative movement, but that it is based on the immutable laws of trade. The long prevalence of low prices has stimulated consumption and diminished production, until the stocks on hand have fallen to an extremely low limit. Exactly at this point an unfavorable season has lessened the crop, and an abundant harvest and every other element of general prosperity, has encouraged the demand. We congratulate the planters on the handsome returns they are receiving for their crops, and we may extend our congratulations to the whole country, for what benefits them is a benefit to all.

TABLE I.

SUPPLY OF COTTON—IN THOUSAND BALES.

	U. S. crop brought to the sea-ports.	U. States consumption in the South.	Total United States crop.	East India imports into G. Britain.	Brazil, &c., imports into G. Britain.	Brazil, &c., imports into other places.	Total besides United States	Total of all kinds.
1840	2,178n	50	2,228	216h	146h	111	473c	2,701
1841	1,635n	55	1,690	275a	166a	128	569c	2,259
1842	1,684n	55	1,739	255h	124h	166	545c	2,284
1843	2,379n	60	2,439	182h	165h	176	523c	2,962
1844	2,030n	60	2,090	234a	197h	80	511c	2,601
1845	2,395n	65	2,460	155h	201h	105	461c	2,921
1846	2,101n	70	2,171	95b	155a	69	319c	2,490
1847	1,779n	80	1,859	224a	135a	122	481c	2,340
1848	2,348n	90	2,438	228b	137h	36	401c	2,839
1849	2,729n	100	2,829	182h	245h	111	538c	3,367
Ave. from 1825 to 1830	838n	10	848	73h	211h	99	383	1,231
" 1830 to '35	1,055n	20	1,075	81h	186h	108	375	1,450
" 1835 to '40	1,440n	35	1,475	144h	196h	104	444	1,919
" 1840 to '45	1,981n	56	2,037	232a	160a	132	524c	2,561
" 1845 to '50	2,270n	81	2,351	177a	175a	88	440c	2,791
Inc. p. ct. in 20 years	171		177	142	17		15	117
" 15 years	115		119	118	8		17	92
" 10 years	58		59	23	11		1—	45
" 5 years	5		15	24	9—		16	

TABLE II.

CONSUMPTION OF UNITED STATES, GREAT BRITAIN, FRANCE, AND OF EUROPE AND AMERICA—IN THOUSAND BALES.

	United States North of Richmond.	Total for U. States.	Total for G. Britain.	U. States cotton in France.	Total for France.	Total for these three	Total for Europe and America.
1840	295n	345	1,271a	374	440a	2,056	2,370
1841	297n	352	1,158a	368	422a	1,932	2,252
1842	268n	323	1,207a	364a	442a	1,972	2,310
1843	325n	385	1,385a	351a	409a	2,179	2,573
1844	347n	407	1,438a	335a	392a	2,237	2,564
1845	389n	454	1,574a	351a	419a	2,447	2,918
1846	423n	493	1,574a	360a	403a	2,470	2,968
1847	428n	508	1,131a	252	293c	1,932	2,296
1848	532n	622	1,491a	276	303c	2,416	2,901
1849	518n	618	1,588a	351	399c	2,605	3,264
Average from 1825 to 1830	117n	127	653h		257	1,037	1,187
" " 1830 to 1835	175n	195	876h		269	1,340	1,540
" " 1835 to 1840	240n	275	1,069h		349	1,693	1,943
" " 1840 to 1845	307n	363	1,292a		421	2,076	2,414
" " 1845 to 1850	458n	539	1,472a		363	2,374	2,869
Increase per ct. in 20 years	290	325	125		41	129	142
" " " 15 years	161	176	68		35	77	86
" " " 10 years	91	96	38		4	40	48
" " " 5 years	50	49	14		14	14	19

TABLE III.

CONSUMPTION OF EUROPE AND AMERICA, OMITTING ENGLAND, FRANCE, AND THE UNITED STATES—IN THOUSAND BALES.

	Exports from United States.	Exports from G. Britain.	Direct imports from Egypt.	Stock. January 1.	Stock, December 31.	Consumption.
1840	182m	123a	49	72	112	314
1841	106m	116a	74	112	88	320
1842	132m	138a	88	88	108	338
1843	194m	119a	118	108	145	394
1844	144m	141a	23	145	126	237
1845	285m	122a	37	126	99	471
1846	205m	194a	26	99	26	498
1847	169m	215a	81	26	87	404
1848	255n	192a	9	87	58	485
1849	322n	254a	63	58	38	659
Average from 1840 to 1845						338
" " 1845 to 1850						495
Increase per cent. in five years						46

TABLE IV.

STOCKS, 31ST OF DECEMBER—IN THOUSAND BALES.

	Liverpool.	Great Britain.	Week's cons'ption in Great Britain.	Havre.	France.	Rest of the continent	Whole of Europe.	Week's consumption.
1840	366g	464g	18	80d	97d	112	673	17
1841	430g	538g	24	90d	135d	88	761	21
1842	457g	561g	24	109a	138d	108	807	21
1843	654g	786g	29	101a	125d	145	1,056	25
1844	745a	897a	32	53a	78d	126	1,101	26
1845	885g	1,057a	35	52a	65a	99	1,221	26
1846	439g	547a	18	25a	47a	26	620	13
1847	364g	451a	16	43a	53a	87	591	17
1848	393h	498a	17	20a	31a	58	587	13
1849	468h	559a	18	38a	49a	38	646	13

TABLE V.

AMOUNT, VALUE, AND PRICES OF AMERICAN COTTON.

	Exports in millions of pounds.	Value in millions of dollars.	Price of exports.	Whole crop United States.	Value of U. States crop.	Liverpool prices of Uplands in pence.
1840	744r	64r	8.6	891	77	6h
1841	530r	54r	10.2	684	70	6¼h
1842	577r	48r	8.1	704	58	5⅜h
1843	817r	49r	6.0	988	59	4⅝h
1844	664r	54r	8.1	857	69	4⅞h
1845	873r	52r	6.0	1,009	61	4⅜h
1846	548r	43r	7.9	901	71	4⅞h
1847	527r	53r	10.1	771	78	6¼h
1848	814r	62r	7.6	1,011	77	4¼h
1849	1,027r	66r	6.5	1,174	76	5¼h
Ave. from 1825 to '30	219r	28r	12.8	288	37	7¼h
" 1830 to '35	312r	34r	10.9	387	42	7¼h
" 1835 to '40	446r	64r	14.4	560	81	8¼h
" 1840 to '45	666r	54r	8.1	825	67	5¼h
" 1845 to 50	754r	55r	7.3	972	71	5¼h

TABLE VI.

UNITED STATES CROP.

	Receipts. 1848.	Receipts. 1849.	Receipts. 1850.	Estimate. 1851.
Texas ... bales	40,000	39,000	31,000	50,000
New-Orleans	1,191,000	1,094,000	782,000	850,000
Mobile	436,000	519,000	351,000	440,000
Florida	154,000	200,000	181,000	190,000
Georgia	255,000	391,000	344,000	300,000
South Carolina	262,000	458,000	384,000	350,000
Other places	10,000	28,000	24,000	20,000
Total	2,348,000	2,729,000	2,097,000	2,200,000

TABLE VII.

ENGLISH IMPORTS FROM THE EAST INDIES.

	Imports.	Remarks.
1835 to 1840, average ... bales	144,000	High prices.
1840 to 1845, "	232,000	Chinese war.
1845 to 1850, "	177,000	Peace and low prices.
1848, October 6, Liverpool	93,000	Moderate prices.
1849, October 5, "	69,000	Low prices.
1850, October 4, "	128 000	High prices.
1848, whole year	228,000	Moderate prices.
1849, "	182,000	Low prices.
1850, estimate for whole year	300,000	High prices.
1851, " "	325,000	High prices.

TABLE VIII.

ENGLISH IMPORTS FROM BRAZIL, EGYPT, ETC.

Year.	About the 1st October. Liverpool.	Whole year for Great Britain.	Year.	About the 1st October. Liverpool.	Whole year for Great Britain.
1846 ... bales	121,000	155,000	1849 ... bales	178,000	245,000
1847	75,000	135,000	1850	203,000	260,000
1848	94,000	137,000	1851		275,000

TABLE IX.

SUPPLY OF COTTON.

		1849.	1850.	1851.
Crop of the United States	bales	2,729,000	2,097,000	2,200,000
English imports from East Indies		182,000	300,000	325,000
English imports from other places		245,000	270,000	275,000
Total from these sources		3,156,000	2,667,000	2,800,000

TABLE X.

UNITED STATES CONSUMPTION.

	Amount consumed.	Average for three years.	Increase per cent. per annum.	Increase per ct. for 3 yrs.
1846	423,000	386,000	9.0	23
1847	428,000	413,000	7.0	32
1848	532,000	461,000	11.5	30
1849	518,000	493,000	7.0	28
1850	488,000	515,000	4.0	24

TABLE XI.

DELIVERIES TO THE TRADE AT LIVERPOOL.

		1849.	Cosumption each week.	1850.	Consumption each week.
March 8	bales	324,000	36,000	227,000	25,222
April 12		433,000	30,929	338,000	24,143
May 10		562,000	31,222	501,000	27,833
June 21		748,000	31,167	672,000	28,000
July 6		835,000	30,926	742,000	28,222
August 9		1,037,000	32,206	907,000	28,942
September 6		1,141,000	31,694	981,000	28,029
October 4		1,220,000	30,500	1,086,000	27,150
October 11		1,287,000	31,390	1,116,000	27,219

TABLE XII.

DELIVERIES TO THE TRADE AT HAVRE.

		1840.	Consumption each month.	1850.	Consumption each month
May 1	bales	120,141	30,035	104,728	26 182
July 1		193,971	32,328	167,653	27,942
August 1		243,040	34,720	200,650	28,664
September 1		279,541	37,442	232,190	29,024
October 1		290,585	36.328	249,707	27,523

TABLE XIII.

CONSUMPTION.		1849.	1850.	1851.
Great Britain, of all kinds	bales	1,588,000	1,500,000	1,500,000
France, of American cotton		351,000	300,000	300,000
The rest of continent		596,000	470,000	500,000
Total		2.535.000	2,270,000	2,300,000

TABLE XIV.

STOCKS AT RECENT DATES.		1849.	1850.
Liverpool, October 12	bales	582,000	482,000
Havre, October 9		46,000	46,000
United States, September 1		155,000	168,000
Hamburg, October 1		5,000	2,000
Total		788,000	698,000

[n] New-York Shipping and Commercial List. [h] Circular of George Holt and Company. [a] Average of several authorities. [b] Circular of Daniel Buchanan and Company. [c] Circular of Collman and Stollerfoht. [m] Hunt's Merchants' Magazine. [r] Report of the Secretary of the Treasury. [g] Burns' Commercial Glance. [d] Circular of Messrs. Todd, Jackson and Company. — Minus, after any number, signifies decrease.*

* The above paper was prepared by Prof. M'Kay, of Georgia, for the pages of Hunt's Magazine, and is so valuable, that we cannot refrain the exercise of the Editor's privilege of extracting.

DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES AND MINES.

1.—IRON CHESTS.

SAVANNAH, GEO.—A manufactory of IRON CHESTS has been established in this city by David Moras, who has just completed one for Messrs. Einstein and Eckman. This chest is 4 feet 6 inches high, 3 feet 6 inches wide, and 2 feet 6 inches deep. It is made entirely of wrought iron, riveted in the most perfect manner, and all the work, including a complicated and very valuable lock, has been done by Mr. Moras.

2.—SHOE FACTORY.

CHARLESTON, S. C.—Carew and Hopkins have established a shoe and leather factory on an extensive scale, and are supplying the planters of South Carolina. We have always believed this would prove a profitable industry at the South, and it has proved so wherever attempted, and particularly, we learn, at Atalanta, Geo. Will some one give us the statistics? Hundreds of thousands of dollars may be thus retained at home.

3.—SOUTH CAROLINA INSTITUTE.

The following officers have been elected over the SOUTH CAROLINA INSTITUTE for the promotion of Arts, Agriculture, Manufactures, &c., for the ensuing year:—Wm. M. Lawton, President; Wm. Kirkwood, Wm. Bell, Vice-Presidents; W. G. DeSaussure, Secretary; L. A. Edmondston, Treasurer. Directors—Joseph Walker, G. N. Reynolds, Jr., E. W. Edgerton, James H. Taylor, D. N. McIntosh, L. M. Hatch, C. D. Carr, F. J. Porcher, H. C. Walker, C. Y. Richardson, E. C. Jones, Wm. Lebby. At the late Fair of the Institute, held in Charleston, an immense number of premiums were awarded. Among others, to Joseph Walker, for *book-binding*; McBee, of Greenville, S. C., for *printing paper*; J. H. Whitney, *tallow candles*; C. Whittemore, *soap*; Eason & Brother, *thrashing machine*, and also work for engines and patterns for *mill gearing*; E. T. Taylor & Co., *cotton gin*; Reynolds & Co., *best coach*; Catherine Frey, *cow's hair blanket and carpet*; Mrs. Holman, *cassimere*; Carson, Young, & Grier, N.C., *black cassimere*; Miss Dalrymple, *domestic silk*; Mrs. Baer, *silk gloves*; D. McCulloh, *cotton yarn*; Saluda Mills, *striped homespun*; Graniteville factory, *shirtings, sheetings*, and *drills*; Troup factory, *Osnaburgs*; D. B. Clarke, *axes* and *hatchet*; H. S. Tew, *straw brooms*; J. S. Guignard, *wine* and *brandy*; Union Iron Works, *iron* and *cut nails*; I. Hopkins, *Muscadine wine*; M. Frederick, *cream ale*; J. Commins, *wool hats*; J. Patterson, *shoe lasts*; Mrs. Givens, *pine burr bonnets*; Wm. Seabrook, *Sea Island cotton*; James Adger, *calf skins*; *upland cotton*, I. K. Jones; R. E. Duer, *Florida tobacco*; Wm. Seabrook, *brown sugar*; C. Rhodes, best *pottery*; Augusta Mills, best *flour*. These are all the products of North and South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, &c. The Committee, consisting of G. N. Reynolds, C. D. Carr, and Wm. Lebby, say—"It is certainly high time that the South should look its situation boldly in the face, for it has, by its own want of *mechanical* and *manufacturing* energy, permitted the people of the North to gain over it advantages which will require both time and industry to reclaim. With time and industry, however, it can be accomplished, and your Committee entertain the hope that the day is not distant when the Southern States will no longer be tributaries to the other States of this Union. We have had presented at this exhibition our own iron, steam engines, railroad wheels, and our cotton gins, our own thrashing machines, our ploughs and our axes, our cabinet-ware, our carriages and our carts, our boots, shoes, hats, and brooms, our woolen goods, cotton geods and silk, our own sugar, flour, butter, and cheese, our own brandy, wine, ale, and oils—in fact, almost every article necessary to the comfort and convenience of our people."

4.—WHAT THE SOUTH SHOULD MANUFACTURE.

The New-York Courier and Enquirer thus discourses upon this subject:—

"In the manufacture of cotton, the first processes are those by which it is freed from seeds, leaves, and impurities, by the gin, the willow, and picker. Then the fibres are made parallel by the cards. Then the fibres are twisted into

yarn or thread by spindles. Lastly, the threads are crossed or interwoven in the loom, and become cloth.

"At first our cotton planters had no machinery of refinement or compression. The leaf and the seed were taken out by hand, and the staple was then crowded into bags for export. Then the cotton gin was adopted and worked, first by hand, then by horses, and now has reached its full efficiency by the power of the steam engine. The cotton bags were too bulky, and bales took their place. These bales were reduced in size, first by the lever, and now by the hydrostatic press.

"What has the planter or his neighbor to do next? He should, as it seems to us, go on in the natural order. He should bring to his aid the willow, picker, card, and spindle. These instruments are not more complex than the gin, press, and engine. They are as easily worked; they free the staple of from ten to fourteen per cent. of its waste, and prepare it for distant transportation. The bundles of yarn can be tied with cotton thread, and the bales of yarn can be wrapped in cotton cloth. The expediency of getting rid of this waste is as apparent as that of freeing the wheat from the chaff, or the corn from the husk and cob, preparatory to shipment. That a people, said to be civilized and to be economical of labor, should, year after year, send three or four hundred thousand bales of cotton over an ocean, and out of the direct line of customers, to have it cleansed of fourteen per cent. waste, and reduced in bulk, by simple machinery of cards and spindles, and then packed and shipped to India, Brazil, and elsewhere, does seem to us a most lamentable and singular paradox.

"We have some doubts whether the South should have woven a yard of cloth in power-looms before she had supplied all foreign looms, whether hand or power, with all the coarse number of yarns. Perhaps the reason why this has not been done, may be found in the fact that New-England did not set the example. The making of yarns was commenced by Eastern mills; but after the material had paid so large a cost of transportation, and when the home market for coarse cloth had not been fully supplied, it was found more economical to put the yarn into cloth. Now, when the home cloth market is glutted, it might be good policy for a portion of the New-England mills to enter into competition with England in the foreign yarn markets.

"In the West, the yarn mills seem to have more than supplied Western hand-looms, and the Georgia mills are now sending yarns as far North as Philadelphia.

"The quantity of yarns yearly exported by Great Britain has been—

1831	58,846,308	1841	115,665,476
1836	85,195,702	1846	157,130,025

"The exports of the next fifth year, 1851, will, doubtless, correspond in the ratio of increase.

"Adding only 10 per cent. waste to the quantity exported in 1846, and we have 172,843,026 lbs., or 432,007 bales of cotton, chiefly the growth of this country, thus consumed. The India cottons are used for padding and other purposes, where length of fibre is of no consequence.

"Now, were these yarns made at home, as they should be, the exports of the country would be increased in value to the yearly amount of fifteen to twenty millions of dollars, the imports would increase in a ratio still larger, and this city would, through her commercial facilities, secure no small portion of the brokerages, commission, freights, and profits, attending this branch of exports, and the corresponding imports.

"The amount we could thus secure to ourselves would be very large, for we should take tolls, just as Liverpool now does, on the way to the mill, and on the way from the mill—on exports and imports; and besides, get pay for carrying the grist. The whole capital required to set this machinery in motion, would not amount to one-half the cost of the Croton Water Works, and the yearly resulting profits to us would very nearly equal the capital.

"We do not, of course, suggest the erection of yarn mills at the South and West under municipal authority, but we do seriously call the attention of our capitalists and merchants to this important department of industry. The object can easily be accomplished—for the work, when commenced, would be self-sustaining and self-increasing."

BESSEMER'S IMPROVED CANE PRESS.

Fig. 1.

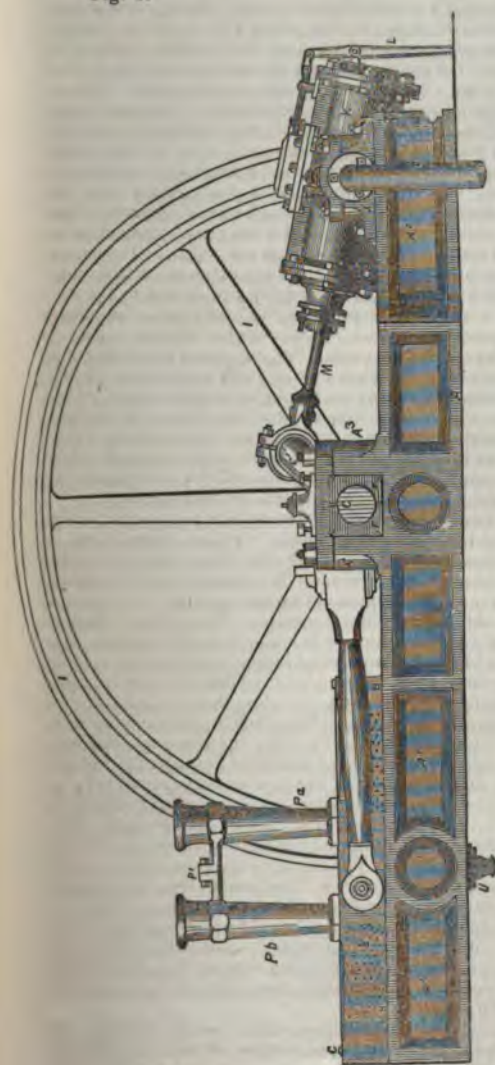
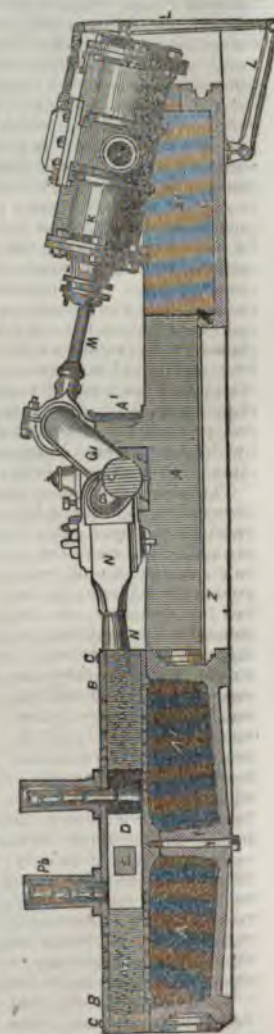


Fig. 2.



We extract from the work of John A. Leon on the Art of Manufacturing and Refining Sugar, published in England, and for sale by J. B. Steel and J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans. Price $25.

The cane mills now generally employed for extracting the saccharine juices from the sugar cane, consists of an arrangement of rollers; the number and position of which are varied; but, most commonly three rollers are used, and arranged so that the canes are pressed a second time in passing through the spaces between them,—which spaces are increased or diminished by regulating wedges or screws,—motion being communicated to the rollers by suitable gearing, in connection with any first mover; the canes are fed endwise between them, several passing through at one time, crossing each other occasionally. The expressed juice runs into a receptacle below,—and the refuse cane, or bagass, passes out on the opposite side of the machine. Cane mills of this descripton are subject to various defects, which I will here briefly point out, in order to show more clearly the nature of the present invention, which has for its object to lessen or entirely remove these defects. In order to extract the juice from a cane by means of a rolling-mill, it is obvious that the rollers must be set sufficiently close to give a very tight pinch; but the rollers must not be too close, otherwise the cane-trash is so lacerated and broken as greatly to lessen the value of the bagass for fuel; besides which, the too hard pressing of the cane extracts certain other matters therein contained, which are found to be highly prejudicial to the saccharine juice. It is therefore clear that, to produce the best effect, the rollers should be set at a certain ascertained distance apart; which distance ought, of course, to depend on the thickness of the cane. For, suppose two rollers are placed so as to produce the best effect on a cane of one and a half inch in diameter, and that in the course of work two canes pass through together, one of which is an inch thick and the other two inches, it must follow that both will be done imperfectly, since their respective bulks are as four to one, the small one being only partially pressed, and a small portion of the saccharine juice extracted, while by the larger one, a larger quantity of saccharine juice will be expressed, but mixed up with much of the foreign and injurious matters before referred to.

This defect is common to all and every of the roller-mills in use, and is totally irrespective of the number and position of the rollers. Further, when a cane is passing between a pair of rollers, the pressure at any one time does not extend to more than two or three inches of its length, and the extreme pinch is exerted on a mere point only, where the rollers approach nearest together, the pressure gradually decreasing on each side of the centre pressure. Now, when rollers of two feet diameter are making ten revolutions per minute, their surfaces, and, consequently, anything passing between them, must be moving at a rate exceeding one foot per second; therefore, if we assume that the effective pressure upon a cane amounts to three lineal inches at one time, it is clear that one quarter of a second only is allowed for expressing the juice from each portion of the cane under operation,—a period wholly inadequate to effect the thorough displacement of the fluid from the congeries of cells in which it is contained. Neither can this evil be remedied by any alteration of position or arrangement of the rollers. Another serious defect of the roller-mill, is the extraordinary facility it affords for the re-absorption of the juice after it has once been expressed. The cane, it is well known, consists of an outer rind enveloping a spongy cellular mass, which contains the saccharine juice. The spongy mass possesses a considerable amount of elasticity when deprived of the juice, and as the cane emerges from its momentary pressure between the rollers, this elasticity causes the cane to expand in the same way as sponge does when relieved from pressure, when it re-absorbs the juice which is flowing in contact with it among the rollers, and thereby not only wastes the juice, but leaves the refuse cane so saturated with it, that it is found necessary to spread the cane-trash in the mill-yard to be dried by the sun before it can be used for fuel.

I have before stated that the pressure on a cane, while passing between the rollers of a mill, will always be in proportion to the relative thickness or diameter of the cane and the amount of space between the rollers; but the amount of pressure exerted upon the different parts of the cane is far from equal, since the rind

and knots are more hard and woody than the rest of the cane, and therefore are subjected to a much heavier pressure than the intermediate parts, which are composed chiefly of soft cellular matter and juice; and thus it is that so much chlorofille and other objectionable matters are expressed from the knots and rind, which should, if possible, have escaped pressure altogether. Their superior hardness and solidity cause the rollers to exert a far greater pressure upon them, by which the injurious matters before referred to are expressed, the juice greatly contaminated, and the power of the mill absorbed. This defect is common to all roller-mills, however the rollers may be varied in number or position. Lastly; the action of the rollers upon the canes, when great or repeated pressure is exerted upon them, tends to lacerate them to a considerable extent, causing thereby many of the larger fragments to fall into the juice, and forcing out and mixing with it innumerable small pieces of the delicate cellular tissues of which the structure of the cane is chiefly composed, the mixture of which with the juice greatly increases its tendency to fermentation, and impedes the process of defecation. Having thus briefly pointed out the more prominent defects in the existing roller-mills, I will now proceed to describe the "Cane-press," and show how, by its peculiar action upon the canes, these defects are entirely removed. For this purpose I refer to the annexed engravings.

Reference to Plate A, side elevation of the Cane-press.
Do. " do. B, longitudinal section.
Do. " do. C, plan.

(*A*) is a strong iron frame or bed-plate, cast entirely in one piece, and forms the only frame, both for steam-engine and cane-press, which are so combined as to constitute but one apparatus, and therefore do not require any intermediate shafts or wheels to connect them,—*bb* are rectangular tubes or trunks, made of gun-metal, measuring six inches in heighth by three inches in breadth: these tubes are placed side by side, and are securely bolted to the bed-plate *a*, which is partitioned off at this end of the apparatus, and forms a cistern for the reception of the juice; in the centre of the machine there is a strong wrought-iron crank shaft *c*, which has three throws formed upon it. The central one, *d*, is much longer than the others, and is connected direct with the piston of the oscillating steam-cylinder *e*. The two other crank-throws, *f*, are of much less length than the central one, on each side of which one of them is formed: the throws *f* and *d* being at right angles to each other. The tubes *b* have large slots made in the sides of them, through which the cross-head *g* passes. The outer-ends of the cross-head fit into openings made in the ends of the stout connecting-rods *h*; the opposite ends of the connecting-rods are attached in the usual manner to the short crank-throws *f*. There are also solid pistons or plungers, *m*, fitted to the insides of the tubes *b*, through which plungers the cross-head also passes, so that whenever the steam-piston gives motion to the crank, a reciprocating motion will also be communicated to the plungers *n*, the speed of which will be regulated by the fly-wheel *r*, which is placed at some distance back from the machine, the crank-shaft being elongated for that purpose. The gun-metal tubes which are made of considerable strength, are perforated on every side by small holes, which are conical, the interior end of them being smallest, so that if any matters get accidentally therein, the enlargement of the hole will insure its rapid removal by the flowing out of the juice from within.

It has been found by repeated experiments, that the friction of the mass of canes in the tubes causes a resistance equal to about 3,000 lbs. on every square inch of the plungers' area, which is sufficient to insure the removal of all the juice from the cane, which at the same time a greater force cannot be exerted, because the open ends of the tubes allow the cane to pass out whenever the pressure exceeds that amount; nor can the canes be imperfectly pressed, because the mass of canes must be pushed forward, or the operation of the machine will cease. When steam is admitted into the cylinder *e*, the piston-rod acting on the crank-shaft *d*, will, by means of the connecting-rods *h*, give a reciprocating motion to the pistons *n*, which will move through a much smaller space, and at a much less velocity than the steam-piston, exerting thereby a powerful steady pressure upon

the canes within the tubes. The crank-throws, which actuate the plungers *n*, are placed at right angles to the throw, in connection with the steam-piston; it therefore follows that, as the steam-engine piston acquires its most powerful position, the throws which act on the plungers *n*, will assume a position nearly horizontal, and in a line with their respective connecting-rods, by which the lever power which they exert will be immensely increased; for during the last quarter of an inch of the plungers' motion, the steam-piston moves through four and a half inches, so that the pressure on the canes will be eighteen times greater than that of the steam upon its piston; and, in addition to this, there is to be added the power accumulated in the fly-wheel during the inactive part of the stroke of the plungers *n*. The mass of canes compressed within the tubes, yielding to the force thus brought upon them, will be reduced to a state approaching absolute dryness before leaving the tubes. It will be observed, that the same advantageous relative position of the steam-piston and plungers *n*, takes place at each end of the stroke; it will also be evident that when the plungers *n* are at half-stroke, and require but a very small amount of force to produce motion in them, the crank-throw, in connection with the steam-piston, will be passing its dead point, and thus the unequal resistance opposed to plungers *n* at the different parts of their stroke, is made to adapt itself perfectly to the motive power, which necessarily varies throughout every part of its stroke.

In order to supply the canes to the machine, a stage or floor is to be erected over the tubes *b*, which may be ascended by a short inclined plane or by steps, or the canes may be brought and deposited there by the cane-carrier as usual. The arrangement of the feeding-platform will be purely local, and would necessarily be varied to suit the level of the mill-house, &c., and as it would very much obscure the more important parts of the apparatus, I have omitted it in the drawings.

On the upper side of the tubes there are conical perforated hoppers, *s* and *t*, which extend up to and are secured to the platform or feeding-floor, so that the feeder, who stands upon the stage, has simply to put the canes into holes in the floor on which he stands; thus, whenever the various parts of the machine are in the position shown in the sectional drawing, Plate B, the cane occupying the hopper *t*, will fall down, as there represented, and as the plunger makes its stroke in the direction of the crank, the end of the plunger will cut off from the cane a piece in length just equal to the heighth of the interior of the tube, while the further progress of the plunger in that direction will force the newly cut portion of cane against the resisting mass of canes *u*, whereby the greater part of the juice will be expressed therefrom; but as the cane contains a certain portion of solid matter, it follows that the plunger in finishing its stroke will move forward the whole mass *u*, a distance equal to that occupied by the newly interposed portion of cane, this movement of the mass displacing at the open end of the tube an equal quantity to that which has just been added. During the cutting off and pressing of the piece described, the plunger *n*, will have moved from under the hopper *s*, and the cane in it will also have fallen down into the tube; the reverse motion of the plunger will also cut off a length from it, and force it against the resisting mass *u*, (as represented in the plate,) whereby the juice will be expressed in the manner before described; the alternate motion of the plunger thus acting on two pieces of cane at every stroke. The same operation also taking place simultaneously in as many tubes as may be placed side by side over the cistern.

In thus following the details of this cutting and pressing operation, a very false notion of its speed is likely to be formed; but it should be borne in mind that every stroke of the plunger cuts off four pieces, even in a machine with two tubes only. Therefore at sixty strokes per minute we have 240 pieces of cane cut off and pressed in that time. The mass of canes occupying the tubes are in a highly compressed state, the cane being collapsed, and the pieces fitting against each other like a pack of cards. Although sixty pieces per minute are added to each mass, the tube is found to contain so many pieces, that it requires two minutes and fifteen seconds for each piece to pass along it, during the whole of which time each piece of cane is retained under constant pressure. It is found that the first action of the plunger does not get out all the juice, but, on the contrary, it is seen to run from the perforations in the tubes more than a minute after the pressure has been applied to it, and continues to do so until the canes have

progressed about a foot along the tubes, when it gradually ceases to flow; the mass, however, still moves forward under pressure towards the open end of the tubes, and thus the pieces that have entirely ceased to give out juice are completely moved away from, and out of contact with, those that are still draining, and therefore the re-absorption of any portion of the juice is wholly prevented.

There are two other points in immediate connection with the operations just described, which deserve particular attention, and are, in fact, of the highest importance; but as the apparatus requisite to carry out this part of my improvements, will be made differently in almost every case, to suit the local peculiarity of the sugar-house, I have not given a drawing of them, particularly as from the simplicity of the arrangements, they will be easily understood without one. Every sugar-maker is well aware of the necessity of keeping the cane-juice from contact with the air as much as possible, and also the advantage of getting it up to a temperature of 180° Fahrenheit without delay. In order to embrace these objects, I proceed as follows:—The cistern over which the pressing tubes are fixed has a slanting bottom, deepest in the centre, where there is a wire grating, to prevent any small pieces of fibre from getting into the pipe leading therefrom. This pipe has upon it a jacket, consisting merely of another pipe of somewhat larger dimensions, and in the annular space between these pipes the steam, that has by its elastic force acted on the piston, is made to circulate, whereby the cane-juice is brought up to the desired temperature for defecating, and is entirely prevented from becoming acid by being heated, out of contact of air, in a close pipe.

From what has been said before, it will be seen that the bagass from the cane-press is in a most favorable condition for fuel, being entirely free from the small pithy fragments which choke up the fire and cause so great an obstruction to the burning of it in the usual way; nor is it mixed with the long unwieldy pieces, as from the old mills; but being in a highly compressed state, and every piece of an equal length, it is almost like prepared firewood, and is in that precise condition calculated to maintain a vivid combustion.

With regard to the wear and tear of the cane-press, it must at once be evident that the extreme simplicity of the machine, the entire absence of tooth-gearing, the way in which the steam-engine is combined, and the direct action of its various parts, together with the smooth motion always transmitted through cranks, render its liability to wear or derangement far less than the generality of machines used in various manufactures which always employ engines complete in themselves, and machines also complete, and then add intermediate gearing to connect them; whereas the present combination of engine and press has not so many working parts as a common steam-engine, with beam and parallel motion, usually possesses.

With reference to the wear of the pressing tubes, which, with their pistons, constitute all the wearing parts of the press itself, I need only say, that they move through a space equal only to one-fourth part of that traversed by the steam-piston; that their weight is not more than half that of the steam-piston; and that they have no packing, do not require to fit at all tight, and are therefore clearly not subjected to one-third the wear of the steam-cylinder and piston, and being of gun metal, and not subject to corrosion, should certainly last three times as long.

The weight of the whole apparatus is 5 tons, 6 cwt. and 3 qrs., while that of the combined mills vary from 25 to 30 tons; and therefore the facility of transportation by sea or of land carriage, with the proportionately reduced expenses in both cases, and the fact that the cane-press requires no foundation to be erected for it, are matters of great commercial importance. A cane-press, capable of doing as many tons of cane daily as the improved roller-mills, may be constructed for little more than half the cost of the latter.

The quantity of canes per day required to be pressed varies considerably on different plantations, in some instances 30 tons are sufficient, in others 100 tons. In order to meet this variation in power, I have arranged three sizes of presses; the smallest of which is represented in the drawings annexed, which were made from the machine after its erection on my premises in the St. Pancras Road, London. With this cane-press I have obtained 80 and 81 per cent. of juice in the regular mode of working, and by a slight contraction of the open end of the

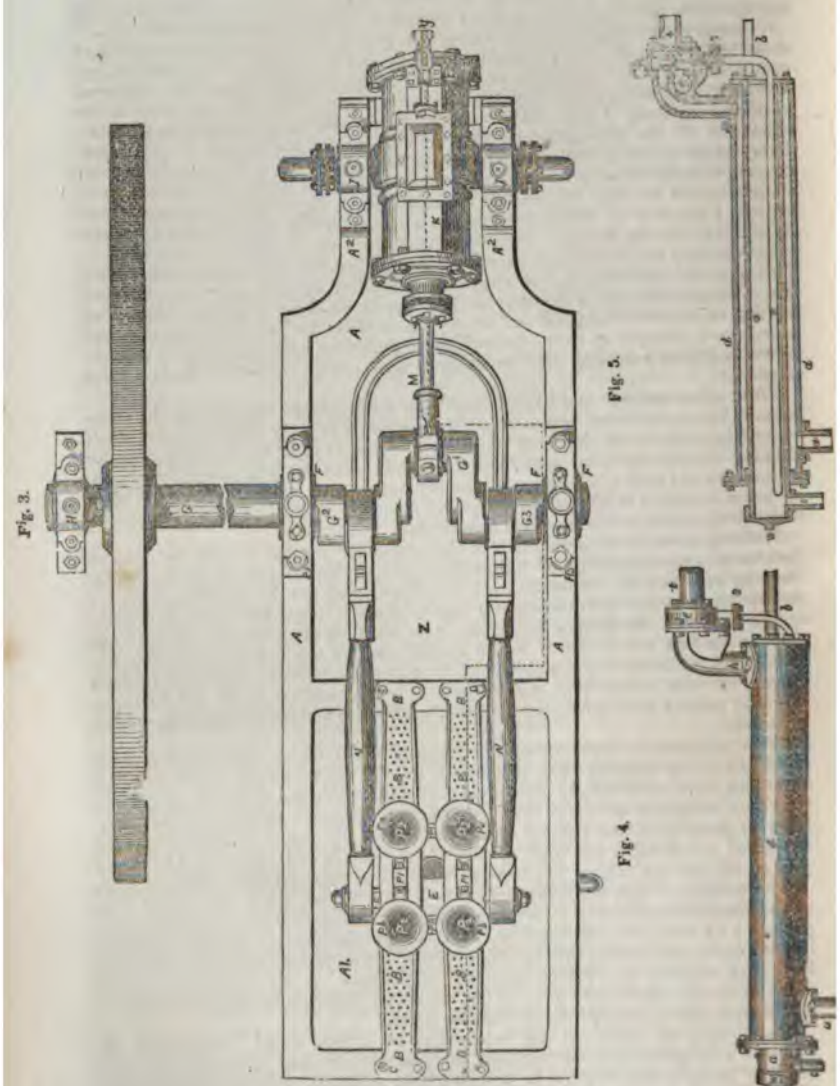


Fig. 3.

Fig. 4.

Fig. 5.

tubes, 84 per cent; was obtained, but I consider we were then putting a strain on the apparatus, which that increased quantity of juice did not compensate for. I therefore prefer the parallel open-ended tube, and the 80 per cent., which is easily attainable.

Nothing is more easy than to calculate the weight of canes that may be pressed in a given time. It has been ascertained that 100 feet of cane of an average size, weigh 105½ lbs. if we reduce it to round numbers, say 100 lbs., or 1 lb. per foot; thus, if we employ in a press two tubes of six inches in heighth, we shall cut off four pieces, equal to 2 feet, or 2 lbs. at every stroke. At sixty strokes per minute, this gives 120, or 7,200 per hour, or 72,000 lbs. per day, of ten hours, or 32 tons, 2 cwt. 3 qrs. and 12 lbs., say 30 tons. Consequently, a press with three tubes 3 inches high, or two tubes 12 inches high, will press double that quantity, say 60 tons; and for very large plantations, a press with four tubes 12 inches high will press 120 tons of cane per day, which, yielding 80 per cent. of their weight in juice, will give 96 tons—about 23,900 old wine gallons of juice, or 2,390 gallons per hour.

Here are instanced experiments on the composition of the sugar-cane, showing the quantities of cane-juice obtained by the roller-mills to range from 68.5 to 54 per cent., the average being 56 per cent only—and other interesting details of the construction, power and motion of various mills, to which we cannot devote space.

The author, Mr. Leon, concludes with the following remarks:—Since November last, the new press has been exhibited, acting on sugar-cane imported from Madeira; I have witnessed its performance with great interest. The bagass on leaving the press is in a much higher compressed state than the trash delivered by the most powerful West-Indian roller-mill. The simplicity of the new machine, its regularity and efficiency have been greatly admired. In the opinion of engineers and sugar planters, the roller-mill for crushing sugar-canes ought to be *tabooed.**

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* This testimony in favor of Mr. Bessemer's invention is corroborated by Mr. Smythe, of the house of Messrs. A. L. Addison & Co., New-Orleans, who saw the apparatus at work in London about three months ago. On examining the bagass, he observed, that although the rind and knots were flattened, the former retained its color and polished exterior, nor did the latter exhibit any change, except in form.

Why these portions of the cane do not, under pressure in the tubes, yield the chlorofille and other objectionable matters, which are unavoidably expressed by the rollers and mixed with the juice, he does not recollect to have heard explained; but he infers, from the indentations in the bagass corresponding to the shape of these woody parts, that owing to the superior hardness, which subjects them to a greater degree of pressure in the roller mill, the action of the plungers only serves to imbed them in the alternate masses of pliant fibre in the tubes in which elastic enclosures their deleterious elements are exempt from extraction.

MISCELLANIES.

1.—THE CREVASSES OF LOUISIANA.

SAMUEL RICKER, ESQ. Chairman of the Senate Committee, charged with this subject, has issued the following Circular. His post office is Lafayette.

GENERAL REMARKS.

The frequency and extent of the inundations to which, it is now obvious, lower Louisiana is liable, have induced many to call in question the policy which has hitherto been pursued in regard to the Mississippi river. We occupy and cultivate a delta of land, elevated at most but a few feet above the level of the ocean; land formed in modern geological times by the great river, which at our cost and inconvenience too often attempts to re-assert its supremacy over it. We have dyked up the thousand minor high water outlets, which formerly gave vent to the flood, and sought to confine the accumulated waters by riparian levees. Finding fault with the river's tortuous channels, by the obstruction of which the impetus of the flowing waters is restrained, and by whose agency in commingling the waters the sedimentary matter is kept suspended, we have made cut-offs. At last we are made fully to realize that our position is one of imminent danger.

What is to be done to arrest this danger of annual inundation? Shall we still pursue, in all respects, the same system as heretofore? Shall we modify it; and if so, in what respects? Or shall we abandon the system of river management which, with us and our predecessors, has so long prevailed, in furtherance of which so many millions of money have been expended? What other method of protection against the floods of the Mississippi, compatible with our interests, is practicable?

These questions now present themselves with peculiar force, to every reflecting man interested in the welfare of Louisiana. We would remark that few or none entertain the opinion that we can wholly abandon the levee system. The prevailing sentiment seems to be, that this system should be so modified, and assisted by other measures, as to confer upon it a greater degree of efficiency and safety; and moreover, if practicable, that such a method of river treatment should be adopted, and hereafter pursued, as will tend to lessen rather than increase the probable dangers from the river to future generations. We believe the opinion is now widely entertained, that the river should be relieved of its surplus floods where practicable, by a system of outlets: thus imitating, to some extent, the policy pursued by the river itself, before levees were built. But, in regard to carrying this plan into practice, a diversity of opinions have been expressed. Some would simply enlarge the Atchafalaya; others would also enlarge the Plaquemines, the Lafourche, the Iberville, &c. Others again would, in addition, re-open the Bayou Manchac. The propriety of a large outlet at Bonnet Carre into Lake Pontchartrain has likewise been insisted upon. One gentleman (J. McDonough, Esq.) whose opinions, from long experience and acute observation, deserve great weight, recommends small outlets, well guarded, four feet wide and three feet deep, every 400 feet along a whole levee from Red River and Baton Rouge to the Balize. (Senate Report on Levees, 1850; p. 67.)

The whole subject is fraught with vitally important consequences to the richest regions of Louisiana We are called upon to devise means to guard against the desolation of flood. It is an emergency such that no one called upon should withhold his advice, or any relevant information in his power to communicate. This circular cannot be addressed to all. Into whose hands soever it may fall, if he have knowledge or experience touching any of the topics of inquiry, we desire he may promptly communicate the same for the general good.

[Here follow the queries, which would occupy too much for our space.]

GALLERY OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

DANIEL PRATT, of Prattville, Ala.

"They that on glorious ancestors enlarge,
Produce their debt instead of their discharge."
* * * * * * *
But some great souls, and touched with warmth divine,
Give gold a price, and teach its beams to shine;
All hoarded treasures they repute a load,
Nor think their wealth their own 'till well bestowed."

It is our fixed purpose, in descanting on the merits and services of distinguished men, to say nothing that we do not believe to be strictly true. We are no idolizers of the living, and would scorn to laud and magnify the name of the illustrious dead, beyond their due meed of praise. We are free to say, that it is our settled opinion, that of all the characters who are most worthy of esteem, that of a faithful minister of the gospel should be the first—for the simple reason that the interest of the soul is of more importance than those of the body. But when the character of the Christian is united with one who devotes his personal influence and pecuniary resources to the promotion of the temporal interests of his fellow men, by the establishment of charitable institutions for the support of the poor and unfortunate, by the rearing of colleges for the education of youths in the paths of virtue and religion, by cultivating the soil and enlarging the means of honest industry, and advancing the cause of civilization and refinement—then we do not hesitate to pronounce such a character an ornament to human nature, and worthy to be held up as an example for the respect and admiration of mankind. Had we time and space, it would afford us much pleasure to institute a comparison between those who have done good in their day and generation, and those who have deferred this matter until their body has been consigned to the dust—to point out the superiority of the Howards over the Girards and the McDonoughs—between those philanthropists who "dove into the depths of dungeons, who plunged into the infection of hospitals, to survey the mansions of sorrow and pain; to take the gauge and dimensions of misery, depression and contempt; to remember the forgotten, to attend to the neglected, and to visit the forsaken," and those who bequeathed "sumptuous palaces and stately temples" to be erected after they are dead, which in a few years disappeared like "the baseless fabrics of a vision," or became the prey of unprincipled rapacity of those to whose care they were entrusted.

The subject of this brief memoir was from the town of Temple, in the State of New-Hampshire, and is now about fifty-one years of age. At the age of sixteen he apprenticed himself to learn the carpenter's trade. After the expiration of his apprenticeship, in the year 1819, he came out to Savannah, Ga. In July, 1821, he left Savannah and went to Milledgeville. In the vicinity of Milledgeville and Macon he carried on his trade until 1831, when he removed to Clinton, Ga., where he was engaged with Mr. Samuel Griswold in the manufacture of Cotton Gins until 1833. In that year he proceeded to Autauga County, Ala. The country had then begun to be populated by planters from the older states. The principal production being cotton, there was a great demand for Cotton Gins, and Mr. Pratt commenced to manufacture them on an extensive scale, having had the benefit of the experience of Mr. Griswold, the oldest and most extensive gin maker in the world. By employing only good workmen; he was enabled to manufacture a gin which was superior to most of those which were then in use. Their reputation was soon established throughout the state, and in the adjoining states of Florida, Mississippi and Louisiana.

Orders came in as fast as he could execute them. Their sale, however, was not confined to the states above mentioned, but a large number were sent to Texas, some to Tennessee, and a few have found their way to Mexico. In a short time he amassed a handsome fortune, and in the year 1838 he bought a large tract of land in the woods on Autauga Creek, upon which Prattville is located. At that time he was living one mile from the Alabama River and three from the present site of Prattville. He commenced by building a sawmill in 1839; then a planing mill, a flour and grist mill, and gin factory. At this time his business had become so extensive in the south-western states, that he found it necessary to establish a House * in New-Orleans, where he has erected one of the most convenient buildings for business in the city. Possessing more capital than was necessary to carry on these establishments, he determined to employ it in such a manner as would contribute the greatest amount of good to the community, and accordingly he continued to improve his place by turning his attention to such business as would benefit the greatest number. The poorer classes he had particularly in view, and to such he has been the greatest benefactor. It was this spirit that prompted the erection of his cotton factory in 1846, now in complete and successful operation, and consuming from 12 to 1500 bales of cotton annually. About the same time he built an iron foundry; he has since built a new brick flouring mill, and recently a sash, door and blind factory, 30 x 60 feet, and four stories high.

Prattville is situated fourteen miles from Montgomery, and the same distance from the Alabama River. The location is low and almost entirely surrounded by high hills, which give it a romantic and beautiful appearance. One of these hills directly back of Mr. Pratt's residence, and rising about 200 feet above the level of the town, he has terraced to the top and planted with the Roanoke or Scuppernong grape. In all his improvements labor and expense have not been so much considered as comfort, convenience and durability. His houses, fences, &c., are of the most permanent and substantial character. The cotton factory is about 150 feet long, 80 feet of which is 36 feet wide, with a brick basement and two stories of wood. On either end of this is attached two other buildings, one of brick showing four stories, and the other a brick basement with three stories of wood. The goods manufactured are osnaburgs and sheetings. The gin factory, which is two stories high, is connected with and immediately on a line with the cotton factory, making the entire range of buildings about 300 feet wide, and presenting the appearance of one building. In this establishment they have every facility and convenience for manufacturing gins. It is now under the charge of S. Griswold & Co., who manufacture about 600 annually. The two factories employ about 200 hands. It may be proper to remark, that the S. Griswold mentioned is the same gentleman with whom Mr. Pratt was engaged in Clinton, Ga., previous to his removal to Alabama. Mr. G. has still an extensive factory in Clinton. Since 1833, Mr. P. has manufactured about 8000 gins. His flouring mill was the first of any note built in Alabama, and to its erection may be attributed the great increase in the production of wheat in the state, and the erection of other large mills.

Besides the buildings mentioned above, there are three churches, two school-houses, four stores, a carriage-shop, two smith-shops, and about sixty-five dwelling-houses. The population is about 800. A portion of almost every family is more or less engaged in some of the mechanical branches; the operatives for the cotton factory are from the surrounding country, whole families generally. Good houses, neatly painted and of uniform size, are provided for them.

Whatever has had a tendency to improve the community morally and socially, has not been left undone. Intemperance has been strictly guarded against. In selling building lots, the sale of ardent spirits has been prohibited, by a forfeiture of the lot in any event of the kind. The legislature has also prohibited the retailing of it within two miles of the place.

Mr. Pratt's residence is a large and handsome building. His front yard is tastefully laid off, and abounds with rich shrubbery and fragrant flowers, in the centre of which a fountain is continually playing. His outbuildings and entire household arrangements

*The firm is H. Kendall, Carter and Co., 15 St. Charles st.

are as comfortable and convenient as one could desire. Attached to his residence is a spacious hall, which was built for a picture gallery, in which he has a choice collection of paintings. Among the most admired is a view of "The Interior of St. Peter's Church, Rome," "The Last Supper," "The City of Rome," "The Roman Forum," "The Bay of Naples," "The Annunciation of the Birth of Christ to the Disciples," "The Landing of Columbus," "The Captives of Judah," "Christ and Mary Magdalen in the Garden," and "The Landing of Cleopatra," and several smaller specimens. He has also a full length portrait of General Washington and Henry Clay, half length of John C. Calhoun, Bishop Soule, and many others.

Taking every thing into consideration, there is no place in Alabama so well adapted to manufacturing purposes as Prattville. The Alabama River is always navigable to within four miles of the place; a plank road of an easy grade, upon which it is calculated a team of four mules will haul a load of six tons, will soon be built by Mr. Pratt, connecting his place with the river. He is now building a good wharf and warehouse at the river landing, which will compare with the best. Transportation between the two places will be a small item of expense. The country in the rear of the village abounds with the finest quality of yellow pine for building purposes, and the water power is sufficient at all times to drive 30,000 spindles and 100 looms, which, with the other business that would naturally follow, would support a population of 6,000 inhabitants.

As an evidence of the interest which Mr. Pratt takes in all that concerns the prosperity of the South, we take pleasure in inserting an extract of a letter which was published in the Montgomery Journal:

"Instead of spending our time and resources on conventions, let us spend them in encouraging and protecting our own state. Let us show a disposition to encourage home industry and home trade. Instead of going to New-York and Boston for almost every thing we consume, let us encourage our own tailors, shoemakers, tanners, saddlers, cabinet makers, pail makers, broom makers, cotton gin makers, cotton and woolen factories, and many other branches of business. It may be said we have no good tailors, shoemakers, &c.; but should we show a disposition to encourage those various branches, we soon would have mechanics among us, and as good and cheap a coat made here as we can get from New-York, and so with all other branches. The fact is, no mechanic can engage in these branches as we are now situated, with any prospect of success. Instead of raising up mechanics amongst us, we are driving them from us. We work hard, and pay nearly all the proceeds of our labor to the northern and eastern states—and are they to blame for receiving it? Let us look at the things in their proper light. What is it that builds up Boston and New-York? Is it commerce? That is part; but take away their mechanics and manufacturers, and you would soon see three-fourths of their stores tenantless, and merchants would not go there for their supplies. Cannot our southern cities be built up in the same way? Could not our merchants be supplied in Charleston, Savannah, Mobile and New-Orleans, instead of going to New-York? When this shall take place, (and I am convinced the thing is possible,) then we shall be in a much better condition to secede. Then the abolition chord will be loosened. Then we shall be a prosperous and happy people. This is what I would earnestly desire to see. Instead of those angry debates at our public meetings, let this matter be discussed—let us unite and say that we will give southern manufactures the preference. Let every neighborhood have a tailor, shoemaker, and all other mechanical branches that are practicable. Let our towns and cities encourage carriage, cabinet, and harness makers. Let our hardware merchants supply themselves with iron and hollow-ware of our own make. Let our dry-good merchants buy such goods as are manufactured amongst us, and go abroad for only those they cannot get here. If all would unite on this plan and carry it out, it would not be long before they could be supplied at home with most of the articles we consume, and such as are not made here, our own merchants could import. Let our people give those merchants who encourage home manufactories the preference, and this will soon bring them all into the measure."

In all that Mr. Pratt has accomplished, he has been without the aid of what is termed a scholastic education. His early advantages were limited; his success is to be attributed to his intercourse with men and things, rather than books. His character could not be better and more truly set forth than in the following letter received from the President of the University of Alabama:

University of Alabama, Jan. 4th, 1847.

To Daniel Pratt, Esq.

Dear sir:—The Trustees of the University of Alabama, appointed by the Legislature of the State, in the exercise of the discretionary powers entrusted to them, have authorized me, as their official organ, to con-

fer upon you the honorary degree of *Master* in the *Mechanic* and *Useful Arts;* and at the late public anniversary of this Institution held on the 21st of December, 1846, the said degree was so conferred.

This is a token of the respect and honor felt by the trustees in common with reflecting men in every station, for that high degree of intelligence, benevolence, uprightness and success, which you have exercised and displayed in the relations of life allotted you by Divine Providence. Without having devoted your life to literary pursuits, you have attained in an eminent degree, that which is the end of all letters and all study, the art of making men around you *wiser, better, and happier.* You have shown in a substantial manner that you value and know how to promote, the industrial and economical virtues among men; rendering your own intelligence and honestly acquired wealth a blessing to all that come within the sphere of your influence. You have shown yourself the friend and supporter of schools for the son of the laboring man, as well as of the rich, that all the rising generation may be fitted for that condition of republican freedom which it is the peculiar privilege of American citizens to enjoy. Above all, you have shown that you discern what is the great source of all virtue and happiness, of all knowledge and success, by your efficient maintenance of the institutions of the religion of our Lord Jesus Christ among your people.

May your life and health be long preserved! May you enjoy the special influences of God's Holy Spirit; and while filling the hand of honest industry with the wages of labor, and erecting over the shelterless a neat and comfortable home, may you too receive a reward for your labor such as this world cannot give, and find for yourself a mansion in that building of God, that house not made with hands, eternal in the heavens!

In attestation of the honor which has been conferred upon you, I have caused a *Diploma* to be made out, duly signed and sealed, of which I beg your acceptance; and which will be sent to your address, or delivered to your order, as you may be pleased to designate.

With great respect I am, sir,
Your ob't servant,
B. MANLY,
President University of Ala."

It is now nearly three years since we visited Prattville and employed ourselves in taking notes of its progress and improvements; and there is not, in all the past, a pleasanter memory presenting itself, than the courtesy, kindness and attention, received at the hand of our excellent friend, the unaffected hospitality of his household, and the generous purpose of spreading ease and happiness around, which presides over his daily life. May the consciousness of doing good follow and cheer him in the future, and illustrate in his own heart, there is more than poetic license in the words,

"An honest man 's the noblest work of God."

EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

I.—JOHN RANDOLPH OF ROANOKE.*

"Thou who, unmoved, hast heard the whirlwind chide
Full many a winter round thy craggy bed,
And like an earthborn giant hath outspread
Thy hundred arms, and Heaven's old bolts defied,
Now liest alon thy native mountain side
Uptorn! Yet deem not that I come to shed
The idle drops of pity o'er thy head,
Or, basely to insult thy blasted pride."

WE have read many lives of illustrious men, but none with more melancholy interest than that of the eccentric personage whose name is placed at the head of this brief sketch. His biographer has performed his duty faithfully, in furnishing us with all the necessary materials to enable us to form a correct estimate of his public services and his private virtues. A considerable portion of his speeches and letters are given at full length, and these we take to be a true portraiture of the man. The best biography is that which permits the subject of it to speak for himself; for it places it in our power not

* *The Life of John Randolph of Roanoake,* by Hugh A. Garland. New-York: D. Appleton & Co., Broadway. 1850.

only to know what he said and thought, but the reasons which operated upon him. We place a high estimate also upon 'Confessions' —when the object of them proceeds from a sincere desire to do good—such as those of St. Augustine; and not when they proceed from vanity and egotism, as is so glaringly evident in those of Rousseau and Lamartine, and many others of the same school.

We must be pardoned, if we do not express the same degree of admiration for Mr. Randolph as many who have made him the object of so much adulation. There are two classes of men whose lives are, or ought to be, interesting. In the first class, we would place such men as Columbus, Milton and Washington. Virtue consists in the patient endurance of suffering, of genuine humility, and invincible courage and fortitude. Such characters, and such only, should be held up to the eyes of the world as examples and models. But where we discover brilliant talents, extravagant pride and great waywardness of temper, however we may admire these qualities, we cannot refrain from tempering our admiration with the sentiments of pity and repugnance. In this class Mr. Randolph holds a conspicuous place. His light was set on a hill—but it shed such a flickering and baleful glare, that it served rather as a beacon to warn the prudent mariner to beware of the unseen rocks that surrounded him, than a safe guide to conduct him to his destined port.

In the same year in which the Father of his country was taken to his final rest, and the sun of Patrick Henry was descending in a blaze of glory, that of our subject became lord of the ascendant. "A tall, slender, effeminate-looking youth was he; light hair, combed back with a well-adjusted cue, pale countenance, a beardless chin, bright, quick hazel eye, blue frock, buff small-clothes, and fair-top boots." He was a candidate for Congress for the first time, and was expected to reply to the Great Orator who was about to deliver his dying speech to his countrymen. "As soon as he appeared on the ground," says Wirt, "he was surrounded by the admiring and adoring crowd, and whithersoever he moved, the concourse followed him. A preacher of the Baptist Church, whose piety was wounded by this homage paid to a mortal, asked the people aloud why they followed Mr. Henry about as if he was a god?" "No," said Mr. Henry, deeply affected by the scene and the remark, "no, indeed, my friend; I am but a poor worm of the dust—as fleeting and unsubstantial as the shadow of the cloud that flies over your fields, and is remembered no more."

At the then recent session of the Virginia Assembly, where the subject of State Rights seemed to have been broached, Mr. Henry apprehended that the state was steering a course that was likely to bring her in contact with the general government; he thought he could perceive a disposition on the part of the Assembly to undervalue the Constitution, by calling into question the validity of Federal Laws. He said that he could foresee the necessity of the government's being compelled to call the military to its aid in enforcing its authority, and that civil war would certainly ensue. He even pictured to the imagination of his astonished hearers the stately form of Washington, marching at the head of an army to do military execution upon the citizens of his native state. "And where (he asked) are our resources to meet such a conflict? Where is the citizen of America, who will dare to lift his hand against the Father of his country?" A drunken man in the crowd threw up his arms and exclaimed that *he* dare do it. "No," answered Mr. Henry, rising aloft in all his majesty, *you dare not* do it—in such a parricidal attempt, the steel would drop from your nerveless arm!"

Hereupon Mr. Randolph arose, and after apologising to the 'old man eloquent' for presuming to differ with him on the momentous question that agitated the minds of the people—opened upon him in the following strain:—"The gentleman tells you that the late proceedings of the Virginia Assembly have filled him with apprehension and alarm. He seems to be impressed with the conviction that the State has quitted the sphere in which she was placed by the Constitution; and in *daring* to pronounce on the validity of Federal laws, has gone out of her jurisdiction in a manner not warranted by any authority. I am sorry the gentleman has been disturbed in his repose, still more grieved am I that the particular occasion to which he alludes should have been the cause

of his anxiety. I *once* cherished the hope that his alarms would have been awakened, had Virginia failed to exert herself in warding off the evils he so prophetically warned us of on another memorable occasion. Her supineness and inactivity, now that these awful squintings towards monarchy so eloquently described by the gentleman, are fast growing into realities, I had hoped would have planted thorns in his pillow, and awakened him to a sense of danger now threatening us, and the necessity of exerting once more his powerful faculties in warning the people and rousing them from their fatal lethargy."

After continuing at some length to expose the fallacy of Mr. Henry's arguments, he retorted upon him in this scorching style:

"And yet the gentleman tells you, we must wait until *some* infringement is made on our rights! Your Constitution broken, your citizens dragged to prison for daring to exercise the freedom of speech, armies levied, and you threatened with immediate invasion for your audacious interference with the business of the Federal Government; and still you are told to wait for some infringement of your rights! How long are we to wait? Till the chains are fastened upon us, and we can no longer help ourselves? But the gentleman says that your course may lead to civil war, and where are your resources? I answer in his own words, handed down by the tradition of a past generation, and engraved on the hearts of his grateful countrymen. I answer in his own words: "Shall we gather strength by irresolution and inaction? Shall we acquire the means of effectual resistance by lying supinely on our backs, and hugging the delusive phantom of hope until our enemies shall have bound us hand and foot? Sir, we are not weak, if we make a proper use of those means which God and nature hath placed in our power. The battle, sir, is not to the strong alone; it is to the vigilant, and the active, and the brave."

Mr. Henry made no reply to this retort—but turning to one of his friends, who was standing near him, remarked, "That he had'nt seen the little dog before since he was at school; he was a great *atheist* then." And then approaching Mr. Randolph, took him by the hand and said: "Young man, you call me 'father;' then, my son, I have somewhat to say unto thee, (holding both his hands)—*keep justice, keep truth*, and you will live to think differently."

After running a brilliant career in Congress, where he seemed to take especial delight in "riding booted and spurred" over the necks of his enemies, and especially the young and the sensitive, he had the boldness to insult Mr. Clay, who had consented to accept the post of Secretary of State under Mr. Adams. His coalition with the president, Mr. Randolph thought could not proceed from an honorable motive, and denounced it a coalition between the *blackleg* and the *Puritan*. Mr. Clay was stung to the quick by this outrageous insult, and sent him a challenge. General James Hamilton, who was then a distinguished member of Congress from South Carolina, (but more distinguished at present for his *undying* devotion to the Union,) was engaged as Mr. Randolph's second. The General gives a graphic account of the rencontre, but it is so well known, that it is unnecessary to repeat it here. Mr. Clay's bullet passed through Mr. R.'s silk gown; Mr. R. remarked to Mr. C. that he was indebted to him for the value of the gown, and Mr. C. is said to have replied that he wished he was deeper indebted to him. But there are two versions of the story.

Mr. Randolph played a distinguished part in the matter of the *Missouri Compromise*. He exposed the impolicy and unconstitutionality of the bill, in a speech of great force and eloquence. His prophetic eye foresaw the difficulties and dangers which have since arisen, and the sectional bitterness which it has created. But it was all in vain; it was smuggled through, and is now a law of the land. It is well known that he believed in the unconstitutionality of the tariff, and was often heard to say, that in case it came to a breach with the government, he would have himself buckled on his horse, and would die sword in hand in the cause of the *South*. But his days were numbered. From the time of the Nullification agitation to the time of his death, which took place soon after, he seems to have been partially deranged. His naturally delicate constitution was much impaired by a life of constant excitement, and domestic afflictions made desolate his hearth. He believed that the curse of God had lighted on him and his whole race. The last act of this mournful tragedy is thus described by his biographer:

"He now made his preparations to die.

He directed his servant, John, to bring him his father's breast button; he then directed him to place it in the bosom of his shirt. It was an old-fashioned, large-sized gold stud. John placed it in the buttonhole of his shirt-bosom—but to fix it in comfortably required a hole on the opposite side. "Get a knife," said he, "and cut one." A napkin was called for, and placed by John over his breast. For a short time he lay perfectly quiet, with his eyes closed. He suddenly roused up, and exclaimed—"*Remorse!—Remorse!*" It was thrice repeated—the last time at the top of his voice, with great agitation. He cried out, let me see the word—get a Dictionary. Let me see the word. "There is none in the room, sir." "Write it down, then,—let me see the word." The Doctor picked up one of his cards, "Randolph of Roanoke." "Shall I write it on this card?" "Yes, nothing more proper." The word *Remorse* was then written in pencil. He took the card in a hurried manner, and fastened his eyes on it with great intensity. "Write it on the back," he exclaimed—it was so done, and handed him again. He was extremely agitated. "*Remorse!*" You have no idea what it is; you can form no idea of it whatever; it has contributed to bring me to my present situation—but I have looked to the Lord Jesus Christ—and hope I have obtained pardon. Now let John take your pencil and draw a line under the word," which was accordingly done. "What can I do with the card," inquired the Doctor. "Put it in your pocket—take care of it—when I am dead look at it."

2.—THE POSITION AND COURSE OF THE SOUTH.

We mentioned in our last the receipt of Mr. Trescott's pamphlet, with the above title, and promised to notice it, and make some extracts for the benefit of our readers.

The objection occurs to us at the outset as to most of the papers and documents issued from the Carolina press, that they go far beyond the necessities of the case, and frame an argument for disunion at all hazards, even were the slavery question closed up and amicably settled. This course is suicidal to the Southern cause; removes the onus of responsibility for endangering the Union from the fanatics of the North, and changes the issue into one in which we can neither be sustained by the common sense of mankind, nor yet by the judgment of more than a mere minority of our own people. Nothing is more to be regretted than that the South, with so fair a quarrel, should be made to assume a *false* position, and we cannot believe that the writers adverted to, give expression to the convictions and feelings of the people of that gallant and glorious state, whose reputation and honor are so dear to our heart.

No; if the dire extremity should come, and the Union must be shipwrecked, with all its sacred and holy associations cemented by the blood of the martyrs of liberty, and consecrated by the prayers of the good and the virtuous of generations, and generations that are past and gone—it is not that the South has sought this issue—not that nature has decreed it in her "geographical lines and barriers,"—not that human liberty and the perfection of republicanism demands the sacrifice! Never, never! The blight and the curse of God will rather fall upon the head of the men who, in daring to interfere with the sacred rights of freemen, in the wantonness of power and the perfidiousness of treacherous natures, have driven the South in self-defence to the wall, and made *disunion*, and even *annihilation*, preferable to the degradation they have prepared for her! *We have not sought this*—Never! our prayers and our hopes, our entreaties, our magnanimous forbearance, have all been exhausted in averting the evil day; and if in vain, and the "deed without a name" must be consummated, the South, without a shadow of remorse, can well exclaim to the bleeding victim of treachery and guilt,

> "Shake not thy gory locks at me,
> Thou canst not say I did it!"

Mr. Trescott, who is one of the ablest young men of Carolina now entering upon the political board, and has won a reputation throughout the state, labors very hard to show the impossibility of a further union between the North and South, on any terms whatever. The grounds that he assumes for this are neither of them tenable, and therefore his ingenious superstructure must fall. These grounds are, 1. *Geographical*, and 2. *Industrial* or *Civil*; or, in other words—the different social systems of the two sections, growing out of the difference in the relation of capital and labor subsisting in each, and the difference in physical circumstances.

1. *Geographical.*—Would not any one smile to think of the Ohio River and the Potomac, being such grand national barriers, as must, like the Alleghany and the Rocky Mountains, constitute of necessity the nations

on either side of them, diverse; independent, *hostile* to each other, and capable of being at best but "*unequally* yoked together," and yet Mr. Trescott, with great profoundness, announces this discovery.

"In examining, then, the conflicting characters of two great sections, it is no unfavorable introduction to such an investigation, to discover that nature herself has drawn deeply the sectional lines. Now, if a map of the settled portion of the North American continent be prepared, indicating only the great mountain ranges and the large rivers, the most superficial review would mark three grand divisions—the north, the south, the west. The north and south this side of the Alleghanies; the west beyond it, having its Pacific border, its bold headlands looking out on Asia; its capacious harbors and its own rivers, rising, running, emptying beyond the mountains, even their sources separated by immense territories from the heights of Atlantic commerce; wealth, unbounded wealth, for its inheritance and independence, the necessary condition of its future life. *Upon this side of the mountains, two great sections, divided by the Ohio and the Potomac,* from the Mississippi to the Atlantic; the north possessing in the lakes and the St. Lawrence, a channel of commercial communication, reaching from Wisconsin to Maine, and the South enjoying in the Mississippi the same connection from Missouri to Florida. Not only has nature drawn these lines, but history, in the action of its providential instinct, has followed their guidance.

"With these preparations for great national differences, no philosophical inquirer would be surprised to discover a wide distinction of sentiment and institution; and the student of political principles would anticipate the impossibility of the consistent action of a single government. What are the facts?"

Mr. Trescott may be a good metaphysician, but he is a bad *political economist*, and, in fact, perverts one of the first principles of the science, in considering labor necessarily at the mercy of capital or controlling it, wherever the institution of slavery does not exist. Nothing of this kind is true. There is no antagonism, but so close and intimate a relation and dependence the one upon the other, that the least disturbance of the equipoise entails the most frightful consequences. The capitalist and the laborer, one country with another, and one time with another, both give and receive as much as the competition of trade, and the average of profits will admit. It is impossible for either to tyrannise for any time before the level will be restored again. In a flourishing nation capital will be in the market and labor bidding for it. In a declining nation the scales are turned. In different periods of the same nation the two conditions may be experienced. In the natural state of things, neither capital nor labor can hold the reins *supreme*, and neither does, in fact, from any peculiar tendency in itself hold them at all, but only from the errors of legislation or the evils that are incident to society in its best as in its worst form, in slavery and in freedom. But let Mr Trescott state his own position.

"Look for a moment at the condition of the operatives of England and France. In both, the population is free, labor and capital are politically equal; while in fact capital tyrannizes with selfish power, holding labor to its terrible bond—the obligation, a life of barely sustained toil—the penalty, death by starvation. There is no moral relation between them and the working classes, who comprehend political theories only in practical results, rebel against the powers that be," &c., &c.

Speaking of the labor systems of the North and South, Mr. Trescott says:

"Now these two systems are irreconcilable either in their principles or their practice —reason and experience pronounce they can never be joined together."

The argument is entirely a false one. These systems of labor have nothing to do with the purposes for which the federal union was formed, and that union is only *perverted* when it touches them at any point. Mr. Trescott should become a *strict constructionist*, and not throw the constitution overboard altogether—ours is *not* a consolidation, happily.

We really think so well of Mr. Trescott, and our personal relations are of so long standing, that it is painful to disagree with him when we have so many points in common. But having promised some extracts from his pamphlet, we will give one more, in which he ingeniously attempts to sweeten, what for a moment even to his own taste seems, the "bitter cup of disunion."

THE FATE OF THE UNION.

"And so it will be with our own constitution; the elements of constitutional liberty may be slightly varied in their action under different governments; but they will act with energy, for they have been incorporated into the national character. The experiment instituted by our fathers will receive its highest illustration, and a continent of

great republics, equal, independent, and allied, will demonstrate to the world the capabilities of republican, constitutional government. That the dissolution of the Union must come, even without the present agitation, at no distant day, is almost a historical necessity; for the history of the world is the record of the aggregation and dissolution of great empires. National individuality seems to be the agent of Providence in the conduct of the world, and having, in the extension of our territories to the extremest western verge, accomplished the first part of our destiny, we are about to fulfil the second in creating those separate national interests and individual national peculiarities, to the attrition of which is due the varied and brilliant civilization of modern times.

"We have thus endeavored to suggest the elements of the present discussion. The question is the gravest that can well be imagined—it is invested with a solemn responsibility, and rises above the flippant passion and uncertain temper of ordinary politics. We believe that the interests of the southern country demand a separate and independent government. We believe that the time has come when such a government can be established temperately, wisely, strongly. *But in effecting this separation, we would not disown our indebtedness, our gratitude to the past.* The Union has redeemed a continent to the Christian world—it has fertilized a wilderness, and converted the rude force of nature into the beneficent action of a civilized agriculture. It has enriched the world's commerce with the untold wealth of a new and growing trade. It has spread over the vast territories of this new land, the laws, the language, the literature of the Anglo-Saxon race. It has developed a population with whom liberty is identical with law, and in training thirty-three States to manhood, has fitted them for the responsibility of independent national life. It has given to history sublime names, which the world will not willingly let die—heroic actions which will light the eyes of a far-coming enthusiasm. It has achieved its destiny. Let us achieve ours."

3.—DRAKE'S INTERIOR VALLEY OF NORTH AMERICA.

Through the courtesy and attention of Dr. Drake, of Cincinnati, we have been favored with a copy of his valuable work entitled, *A Treatise on the Principal Diseases of the Interior Valley of North America, as they appear in the Caucassian, African, Indian, and Esquimaux varieties of its population—historical, etiological, and practical.*

The volume before us contains nearly one thousand pages, but so vast is the conception and design of the author, that there is material still behind for one or perhaps even two volumes of similar dimensions. Over seven hundred pages are employed upon GENERAL ETIOLOGY, or the causes of disease, which constitute *Book* I, and is divided into three parts: 1. *Topographical and Hydrographical Etiology*, embracing natural boundaries, area, and aspects, the hydrographical system, altitudes and configuration, geological outline, hydrographical basins—the Gulf of Mexico, special medical topography of the coasts and cities of the Gulf of Mexico—the delta of the Mississippi, considered as a part of the Gulf coast—localities in and around the delta of the Mississippi—medical topography of the bottoms and bluffs of the Mississippi River above its delta—of the regions east and west of the Gulf and the River, and south of the Ohio basin—the Ohio basin—general views of the whole basin—lakes Superior, Michigan, and Huron—St. Lawrence, Lake Erie, and Lake Ontario basins—the Hudson and Arctic hydrographical basins.

Part *second* is entitled *Climatic Etiology*, embracing nature, dynamics and elements of climate—temperature of the interior valley, atmospheric pressure of the interior valley, winds of the interior valley—aqueous meteors—electrical phenomena, distribution of plants and animals.

Part *third,—Physiological and Socia Etiology*, including population, modes of living, clothing, lodgings, bathing, habitations, and shade trees, occupations, pursuits, exercise and recreations.

Book II. is upon *Febrile Diseases*, and occupies the remainder of the volume.

The reader will perceive by the above analysis that the first volume of Dr. Drake's book addresses itself in a much higher degree to the practical business men and inquiring minds of the West than to the *mere* physician, though valuable to him as unfolding the basis of doctrines and positions to be assumed hereafter. This volume is almost complete in itself. "The history of the diseases of the valley, though highly important," says Dr. Dowler, "is really the least valuable part of the work. The statesman, the geographer, the geologist and the civil historian, (we might add the planter, the engineer, the capitalist seeking investment) will

dispute with the pathologist for the right to this work, notwithstanding the medical import of its title."

It is not for us, a mere layman, to intrude within the inner temple, and by the side of the altar where doctors disagree and splinter lances with each other. Otherwise, having mentioned Dr. Dowler, we might feel under some obligations to examine the strictures he has passed through in the *New-Orleans Medical Journal*, upon the design and execution of the work before us. Those who know Dr. Dowler will admit, there are few men in America more pains-taking, laborious and profound in their researches, or more original and peculiar in the field they have marked out for themselves. On this account, Dr. Drake is fortunate in having such a reviewer, who, though he has criticised the method adopted, (*i. e.*, in obtaining information from verbal statements gathered during rapid journeys through the valley) as insufficient and inaccurate, yet admits without hesitation, that

"Dr. Drake's book is unrivaled, as an elegant and learned summary of the topographical, social, and vital physics of 'the interior valley of North America." But he leaves the great problem still to be solved, namely, the invariable connections between the physical agents, and the special diseases of localities. The great desideratum which connects, as cause and effect, the meteorology, the hydrography, and general topography of a delta, a basin, a plain, a lake, a river, a swamp, a mountain, and a country, with the maladies of the population, is still an open question. May the learned and honored author grapple with this difficult problem, in his forthcoming volume, and may he be successful!"

In justice to Dr. Drake, it should be stated, that his work is the laborious investigations and reflections of an almost octogenarian life, and that its germ was published by him forty years ago, entitled "Notices Concerning *Cincinnati*." He has traveled extensively over the field, and embodied facts drawn from personal intercourse with living physicians, and from every written or printed authority. These personal explorations were conducted through eighteen degrees of latitude, and nearly as many of longitude.

We have marked many passages in the volume for extract in the pages of the Review, especially those which relate to the topography, hydrography, and meteorology of our Southern cities and country, and have evidently been prepared with great labor. We know of no other authority a tithe part so voluminous and reliable upon these matters. For the present, we can only quote a passage from the review of Dr. Dowler, remarking at the time, that the work being printed and bound in Cincinnati, is in every respect the largest and most valuable which has yet appeared to the westward of the mountains, and as such, deserves especial favor.

INFLUENCE OF THE MISSISSIPPI ON HEALTH.

"Dr. Drake, however, is too good a man to slander the Mississippi river—for having shown at length, (70, 71, 72,) that the river is excessively foul, and that 'the catalogue [of its impurities] is rather startling," he concludes that 'the salubrity of the Mississippi water, or that of the Missouri, which imparts the character of turbidness, is not an open question. From St. Louis to New-Orleans, the testimony of the population on its banks, and those who spend a great part of their lives upon it as watermen, is unequivocally in its favor. Many persons drink it before its suspended materials have subsided. and seem to prefer it to that which has been rendered transparent by time or art. That it produces some effects on the system, which transparent water from wells and springs, and our other rivers, does not, is an established and popular opinion. It is even regarded by many persons as being, to a certain extent, medicinal, and especially adapted to the cure of chronic functional disorders of the stomach, bowels, and liver—an opinion in which I am disposed to concur. That its daily use averts some forms of disease, may be admitted as probable; but precise observations on all these points are wanting; and I shall dismiss the subject with the presentation of two facts, in which, I trust. the reader will take a pleasant interest. *First*, Professor Bailey, after observing its numerous shoals of microscopic animalcules expresses the opinion, that they are sufficiently abundant to render the water *nutritious*. *Second*, In his letters on Louisiana, written in the year 1751, Captain Boissu informs us, that the Mississippi water has the property of contributing to the *fecondite de femmes!* '72, '73—Lozieres and other authors, down to near the close of last century, (before the appearance of the yellow fever,) maintained that the salubrity of New-Orleans, with its exemption from epidemics, was owing to the hygeinic influences of the Fathers of Waters. In a book of voyages, (1794 to 1798, p. 17,) this 'pleasant' story of the fecundating property of the Mississippi water is re-asserted. The story of the youth-giving stream which Don Juan Ponce de Leon sought in the Peninsula of Florida—the gold-revealing current of the

Sacramento—the love-inspiring Venus, rising from the foam of the sea, must 'pale their ineffectual fires,' before 'the Big Drink.' All that Dr. Drake has said against the Mississippi river, is more than compensated by what he says for it."

4.—THE FISK PUBLIC LIBRARY.

There is a woful amount of responsibility incurred somewhere, for the shameful neglect of the liberal donation made by the brothers Fisk, for the establishment of a public library in the city of New-Orleans. It may not be generally remembered that the donation consisted of some six thousand volumes of valuable works, and a large and handsome building upon Custom-house street, for their reception.

What has been the result of this liberal provision, now that several years have passed? What provision is made for the *permanent* establishment of the library? Who knows anything of its existence even, or enjoys any of its fruits? The whole affair is utterly unworthy of the city, and almost in *bad faith* towards the liberal founders.

We believe that there is a nucleus here for a splendid library, if the municipalities will do their duty. The building on Custom-house street is in no wise adapted to the purpose. Let the building be disposed of, and the money expended in the purchase of a more extensive collection of works. Ten or twelve thousand dollars may be realized in this way, which will purchase as many thousand volumes, and donations of books from every quarter will continually swell the list.

A Hall for the purposes of the library can readily be obtained. The University of Louisiana will, without doubt, concede the *perpetual* enjoyment of one of its magnificent halls, in the new building on Common street, for this end; and the librarian may be supplied, at small expense, from its professors or its students. This plan should be carried out at once, and we earnestly commend it to the attention of the municipalities of the city, and the administrators of the college. It is time we were at work reforming things in New-Orleans.

5.—THE LONDON WORLD'S FAIR.

It pleases us to chronicle the fact, that a movement has been made in Louisiana to secure a representation at the great World's Fair, of some of our products and staples. We hope there will be many articles forwarded. One or two delegates, it is thought, will attend on the part of the State. The following is the committee appointed by Governor Walker:—

Col. Maunsel White, Lucius Duncan, Chas. L. Leeds, C. G. Forshey, Dr. J. L. Riddell, J. D. B. DeBow, A. M. Holbrook, *New-Orleans;* Valcour Aime, *St. James;* Judge P. A. Rost, *St. Charles;* Judge John Perkins, *Madison;* Dr F. M. Hereford, George O. Hall, James McHatton, Wm. S. Pike, Wm. R. Adams, Leon Bonnecaze, *East Baton Rouge;* Col. Henry Marshall, *Caddo;* Col. D. F. Fluker, *East Feliciana;* Col. P. O. Herbert, *Iberville;* Dr. R. H. Selby, *Rapides;* Gen. Andre LeBlanc, *Assumption;* Trasimond Landry, *Ascension;* Robert Cade, *Vermilion;* Wm. M. Prescott, *St. Landry.*

The annexed resolutions were adopted by the Committee:—

Resolved, That public notice be given of the organization of this committee, and that citizens of Louisiana intending to present objects for exhibition in London, be requested to send the same immediately to New-Orleans, where suitable rooms for the reception of the same have been provided.

Resolved, That it be recommended to all citizens forwarding specimens, that they make them as small as is compatible with their objects, and that they be well secured and boxed in a manner to render them safe, should the committee desire to forward them.

Resolved, That this committee invite the committees of neighboring States to forward their commodities, properly packed and prepared, to this committee, care of Maunsel White and Co., for transmission to London.

Resolved, That the Chair appoint a subcommittee of two for the purpose of examining models of invention or products of art submitted to be forwarded to the Industrial Fair at London. Also, a committee of two to examine products of the soil and manufacture, which may be offered—both committees being instructed to report to this committee what are approved.

The Chair appointed on the Committee on the Products of Art and Models of Invention, Professor Forshey and C. J. Leeds. On motion, the Chair was added to this committee. For the Committee on Agricultural Products, Dr. Riddell, Judge Rost, and Valcour Aime were appointed.

6.—THE MONTGOMERY BOILER.

In our advertising pages, we have included a description of the merits of these boilers, to which the reader's attenhion is referred. They have been fitted in the following steamers, workshops, hotels, &c. :—U. S. coast survey steamer Jefferson; U. S. steamers Vixen and Water Witch; steamship Union, for the Pacific; propeller Ontario, Charleston; steam-ship Dolphin, European trade; propellers Jersey Blue and Edward Payson, New-York; steamers Jonas Heartt, Georgia (Chesapeake Bay), and Maryland; new steamers building at Wilmington, Del., and by A. Aspinwell, New-York; two propellers projected for the European trade; and several large boats on the Erie. Also stationary engines at Hecker and Brothers, Cherry street; D. D. Badger, Duane street; A. Metcalf, Centre street; Hooper and Brothers, and Mott and Ayres, Pearl street and North River; Wm. Keamy's factory, 26th street, New-York; Smith and Curlett, Baltimore; Detroit Water Works; Reading Railroad; Quimby and Company, Newark; Atlantic Docks, Brooklyn (Verplank and Co.); J. and S. Eagle, Williamsburgh, L. I.; Belleville Iron Works, New-Orleans; St. Charles Hotel; Gen. Taylor's plantation. Also, in Hartford, Providence, Troy, &c., and on the Reading Railroad.

7.—RAILROAD SPIRIT IN LOUISIANA.

It pleases us to chronicle the fact, that Louisiana, and particularly New-Orleans, is becoming at last aroused to the importance of extending her internal improvement system. The Council of New-Orleans have had the *Jackson Railroad* under consideration, and appropriated a sufficient amount to conduct the necessary surveys. As we were among the first to advocate the route, the pleasure resulting from the movement is enhanced. *The Lafayette and Lake Pontchartrain* road is being vigorously pressed, and half the necessary capital already subscribed. The shares are $25 each; capital, $150,000, and the cost assessed as follows:

Iron for 7¾ miles of road, $8,000 per mile	$62,000 00
Engine and Tender	6,500 00
Ten cars, at $400 each	4,000 00
Depot on Jackson Street	15,000 00
Do. at Lake Pontchartrain	10,000 00
	$97,500 00

But the greatest enterprise with our citizens, is the *Tehuantepec Railroad*, a matter we have often referred to, and will refer to again. Books for subscription have been opened, and a respectable beginning made. The surveying company are to leave in a few days, on the steamship Alabama, and we are promised full notes by its chief. The following persons are charged with the work, and an extra session of the Legislature is urged for the purpose of granting a charter;

Maj. J. G. Barnard, of U. S. Corps of Engineers, Chief Engineer.
J. J. Williams, of New-York, Principal Assistant.
Geo. F. Dunbar, of New-Orleans, Principal Assistant.
Dr. Canter, of New-Orleans, Physician.
Passed Midshipman Temple, U. S. N.,
Passed Midshipman Murphy, U. S. N.,
Mr. Mechlin, U. S. Coast Survey,
Mr. DeLacy, of New-Orleans, Hydrographic Assistants.
Mr. H. P. Andrews, New-Orleans, Clerk.

To the above chief officers are added fifteen assistants, and twenty-five men, to be employed as chain carriers, rodmen, boatmen, axemen, &c. Most of the latter are from New-Orleans.

The last railroad to which we can now refer is that to connect the Mississippi and New-Orleans with the beautiful and wealthy country of the Attakapas. The books are about being opened at Franklin, and the "Banner" remarks thereon:—

"This road being completed, the planter will not shudder at the length of time and probable detention of a trip to New-Orleans and back; and the fair crescent city, in summer, will send up her thousands to enjoy the pleasant and healthful air of Attakapas, and to forget their city cares in the pleasures of Last Island.

8.—CHARLESTON INDUSTRIAL FAIR.

Our neighbors of Charleston are now taking the lead in the industrial regeneration of the South, and their late manufacturing fair was the most brilliant ever held south of the Potomac. We wish that every other southern city would emulate the example. So soon as we get the pamphlet particulars this fair, and the speech of Judge Lumpkin, we shall make elaborate extracts from them. At present we can only clip from the newspaper, accounts of one or two specimens of the exhibition:—

117. Black Cassimere from the Rockville Factory, North Carolina, owned by Messrs. Carson, Young and Grier. This factory has

only been in existence a short time, and if these be fair specimens of its manufactured goods, there will be no necessity hereafter for us to go farther north than North Carolina for goods of this kind.

184. The miniature model of a steam engine, executed by R. C. Gilchrist, a youth, who has heretofore been distinguished for his precocious talent as a mechanist.

9.—EULOGY ON THE LATE JOHN C. CALHOUN, by Frederick A. Porcher, Professor of Belles Lettres in the College of Charleston. Published by request of the Cliosophic Society, 1850.

It is too late in the day to sound the praises of Mr. Calhoun—a saintly character, who died in the hour of his proudest triumph, and when, like Moses of old, upon the top of Pisgah, he could but catch a view of the promised land—a saintly and a glorious character whom death could no farther affect than to *finish* and to *canonize*. It is too late in the day to sound his praises. The man belongs to history; and the millions of ages to come will be his judges and his auditors in a much higher sense than we are. Here let his fame rest. True greatness assimilates itself to divinity in this, that there is no past, or present, or future with it—yesterday, to-day and to-morrow all blend themselves into *now !*

Professor Porcher's eulogy is worthy of his theme, but what man can expect to do entire justice to it? The best of us must say with sincerity, as the devout, but illiterate Christian did, when struggling to speak upon the stirring theme of the Cross—"God has not given it to an humble man like me, to speak of such things as these."

Professor Porcher has well said, and this is a crowning glory:

"The eminent men of the South enjoy, in a remarkable degree, the confidence of the people. No one ever spoke coldly of the merits of the Pinckneys, the Lowndes, of Hayne, or of Calhoun. They commanded the affections of those who trusted in them, because their eminence was due mainly to their moral worth. It is a trait of the Southern character, that mere intellectual power carries little weight. *He who would lead the Southern mind, must be a* GENTLEMAN. We bow to no superiority, but that which is based on purity of character."

This remark applies, in a very high degree, to Carolina, who, if she had all the faults her enemies are so quick to give her, would, in this alone, find a claim to imperishable honor. Her children are her jewels, and she clings to them with honest pride. They never desert her, and she never deserts them. Her hand is ever ready to fit the garland to their brows, whether, like Butler, or the meanest subaltern of her regiment, they fall covered with honor on the fields of Mexico, or, like Calhoun, full of years and illustrious achievements, they go out in death on a sea of glory. Such a state is not to be measured by the paucity of her cotton bales: God forbid that she should be!

The present address is published by the *Cliosophic Society of the Charleston College*. In youth we were a member of this Society, and shared in many of its exciting debates and rhetorical exhibitions. The reader will pardon us for pausing a moment, as all the glowing and sacred memories of the halcyon past come rushing in. We almost fight again, in fancy, the battles of those old halls, and see starting up again, at every turn, the familiar champions of the "worse or better cause," who are now all scattered through the by-ways of society. No orator before grave and listening senates, ever felt in a higher degree, than those young disputants did—

"The stern joy that warriors feel,
In foemen worthy of their steel."

It is but lately that we entered those sacred precincts again, and found that none of the spirit of yore had died out, but that it rather burned with an higher and a quenchless flame. We were proud to be remembered by such an association, and to receive their welcome back. The memory of the night will not soon pass away when we took a part—we regret it was not an abler part—in the celebration of their anniversary, and afterwards shared in the *flow of soul*, and festivities of the "*upper room*." In the hands of these youth Carolina may well intrust her future destinies!

10.—AN ADDRESS BEFORE THE LITERARY SOCIETIES OF WASHINGTON COLLEGE, Lexington, Virginia, June 18, 1850, by John R. Thompson, of Richmond.

Mr. Thompson is well known to our countrymen as the editor of that widely-popular, and most valuable periodical, the *Southern Literary Messenger*. We have had frequent occasion to speak of his ability as a writer, and his elegant scholarship. The

present production is in keeping with the high character of the author, and we regret nothing so much, as that space does not admit of an analysis of its striking merits. A prominent subject with him, is the present condition of Education and Literature in Virginia, which he discusses with a bold and free hand. On her deficiencies in *literature*, in particular, he is severe, we think too much so, and more, we have no doubt, than he would allow any one else to be.

"There is a pleasant custom, in some sections of our country, to issue, now and then, a volume of miscellanies, made up exclusively of articles written by natives, or residents of the place where the book is published, and called after the name of the place itself—as the Boston Book, the Charleston Book. The contributors are, in general, limited to two articles each. In an attempt to compile such a volume, not in any one of our towns, but from the whole State, how meagre a range of selection we would have! Should the extracts be of the ordinary length, what arts of the publisher would be called into requisition, to swell it beyond the size of the duodecimo! Leaving out of the account, all essays of political or theological controversy, what has Virginia to show of literary excellence, written within her bounds, or by her sons? Some historical researches there are—a few essays of Ogilvie and Wirt—The Iliad, translated by Wm. Munford—some amaranthine verse and affluent prose, of the various, and gifted, and unfortunate Poe—a few, alas! how few poems of the affections, and home sketches of Cooke, the lamented and early lost—the sweet effusions occasionally sent forth by Jane Taylor Lomax, another child of song, the story of whose days have been shut up in an untimely grave—these, together with the contributions to the periodical literature of some whose efforts have deserved the laurel to which they never aspired, constitute the stock of letters that we may boast."

IMPORTANCE OF SOUTHERN LITERATURE.

"It cannot be denied, I think, that there exists, at this time, a peculiar necessity for a home *literature*, and by this I mean, a literature adapted to the institutions, by which we find ourselves surrounded, and to the general frame work of our society. Fanaticism in all its forms, but worst of all, in that fell shape of modern abolition, which, with impious tread, has dared to confront the presence of the Divine Majesty itself, and mock at its revelation, stalks abroad through the land. Its pestilent doctrines are sent among us through every conduit, and our utmost vigilance is necessary for our self-preservation. Among all its agencies, there is none so active, or so potent, as the press; and no man can deny, that the entire Northern press is anti-slavery in its tone and spirit. The political journalists may, indeed, observe a shew of neutrality—such of them (perhaps half a dozen) as are not avowedly hostile to Southern interests, upon party issues; but the literary and religious papers, with few exceptions, are tinged with the fanatical blue, relying, as they do, in a great part, on Southern patronage for support. Now, is it not humiliating to the Southern character, that all our reading should be drawn from such a source as this? There is but one way to counteract this influence, and this is by a literature of its own, infused with the conservative spirit, the love of order and justice that constitutes the most striking characteristic of the Southern mind."

11.—COMMERCE OF THE RIO GRANDE.

The pamphlet shows conclusively the fact of Point Isabel being the only safe available depot on the coast, for the valley of the Rio Grande; from the highest military authorities, the report to the Topographical Bureau, at Washington, the report of Capt. Robertson, inspector for the board of underwriters of this city, who was sent by them on a special mission to the Rio Grande. The importance of the Point as a shipping port, is shown in the fact that a larger number of vessels is at all times up for it and Brazos, from our city, than for all the other ports in Texas together. Thus commerce ever indicates the *best* routes.

We noticed in the late report of the adjutant-general, that Fort Brown and Eagle Pass, interior points on the Rio Grande, both tributaries to Point Isabel as a receiving depot, have larger garrisons than either of the frontier posts, "because as the keys to the upper provinces of Mexico, they must necessarily have a strong influence in maintaining peaceful relations along the boundary line and in protecting the revenue laws." Yet, while this fact is acknowledged, *Point Isabel is unprotected and the troops withdrawn.* Point Isabel is the base and receiving point of these "keys," where millions of dollars in merchandize and specie are continually deposited! No position could be more exposed to the excursions of the Indians and banditi than this, from its contiguity to the frontier, and no imprudence greater than its neglect by the military force of the government.

Our attention has been called to this matter by citizens of Texas, The government

is bound by its treaty stipulations with Mexico and its duty to our citizens, to promote their resources and development, and it behooves the War Department to see that its posts are made strictly with a view to the public good.

Travels in Siberia, including Excursions Northwards down the Obi to the Polar Circle, and afterwards to the Chinese Frontier. By ADOLPH ERMAN. From the German. 2 vols.

This work is from the publishing house of Lea and Blanchard, of Philadelphia, and is one of that admirable series they are ever giving to the public. No house in America is more select in the quality of the material which it issues.

Among other subjects of deep interest contained in the present volumes, the reader will find various information respecting the trade carried on from the frontiers of Siberia to Bokhara, and Tashkend; the fisheries of the Obi; the mineral riches of the Ural and the Nerchinsk; the fossil ivory of the valley of the Lena and New Siberia; and, in general, respecting the face of nature, and the distribution of vegetable life throughout the northern half of the old world. Of the important scientific matters here brought to light, it will be sufficient to point out the existence of a Siberian magnetic pole, the perpetual congelation of the ground to a great depth, at Yakutsk, and the decrease of the atmospheric pressure, as indicated by the barometer to Okhotsk.

The Literary World, for the week ending December 15, 1850, received at this office, is a gazette which should be read by every gentleman who desires to be a true scholar of the age. The number is not, however, a single specimen of the journal's excellence—which, ever since its establishment four years ago, has been recognized as the only manual in the country appertaining to the man of letters. This is evident, whether we consider the wide survey of literature it makes, from week to week, or the unwearied excellence of the critical pens which influence its opinions. It is something to know a little *about* everything. The men of business in our Southern sections of the Union, may not have read, to be sure, a tenth part of the publications weekly made; yet, through the medium of the *Literary World*, they may see what is doing in the world of letters, and keep pace with the times. We may not be able to acquire perfect knowledge; but it is easy to know where to go in search of it when wanted.

As a weekly gazette, asking the patronage of the *South*, the *Literary World* is among the foremost in its claims. Its opinions have always been eminently conservative and national. It has been the only Northern periodical that has done justice to Mr. Simms, the novelist, *par excellence*, of the South. Its jealousy is never attacked by the success of Southern literature. The papers known as the "Manhattaner in New-Orleans" (now demanded, by their popularity, for publication in book form), and "Drafts at Sight upon the South-west," written by an eloquent enthusiast of Southern institutions, were prepared for the *Literary World*.

With these remarks, prolonged only from a sense of justice to the subject, we call the attention of our readers to the prospectus of the *Literary World*, which shall be published in our next magazine.

The Pillars of Hercules; or a Narrative of Travels in Spain and Morocco, in 1848. By DAVID URQUHART, ESQ., M. P., Author of "Turkey and its Resources," "The Spirit of the East," &c., 2 vols. New-York: Harper and Brothers.

We can give no higher and more inviting notion of these volumes, than simply the caption of their chapters:—The Straits of Gibraltar; Excursion Round the Straits; Tarifa; Bombardment of Tangier; Cadiz; Tyre and her Wares; The Stone of Hercules; The Country of the Rovers; The Sultan and his Commercial System; Domestic Architecture of the Moors; The Arab Tent; A Boar Hunt; Arab Domestic Industry; The Bath; The Helot; The Arabs of the Desert; The Gardens of the Hesperides; The Jews in Barbary; The Clans in Barbary; The Island of Andaluz; Spanish Painting; Spanish Architecture, Gothic, &c.

Popular Education for the use of Parents and Teachers, and Young Persons in General, By IRA MAHEW, M.A. *Alton Locke, Tailor and Poet, an Autobiography. History of Madame Roland*, By JOHN S. C. ABBOTT, with engravings. *Pictorial Field Book of the Revolution*, By LOSSING, No. 9. *The Green Hand, a Short Yarn*, No. 1.

These works are from the publication house of *Harper and Brothers*, and are furnished us through the courtesy of J. B. Steele, New-Orleans.

Mr. Mahew's work on *Popular Education*, was prepared at the instance of the Legislature of Michigan. The range of subject is very wide, including Physical Education, the Laws of Health, Intellectual and Moral Education, Popular Education, National Education, Rules for Schools, &c.

Alton Locke is written in a lively and spirited style, and is altogether a most readable book. We can only give here the title to a few of the chapters—A Poet's Childhood; The Tailor's Workroom; First Love; Poetry and Poets; The Man of Science; Cultivated Women; The Freedom of the Press; A True Nobleman; Dreamland; Miracles and Science; Priests and People, &c., &c.

Nothing can be more interesting than the whole life, character and career of that highly-gifted, but most unfortunate woman, Madame Roland, who sealed with blood her devotion to the principles of the *Girondists*, and exclaimed in her dying hour—"Oh, liberty, liberty, how many crimes are committed in thy name!"

Researches upon the Necropolis of New-Orleans, with Brief Allusions to its Vital Statistics.

We are indebted to the author, Dr. Dowler, for this characteristic and curious pamphlet. Like everything from his pen, it is elaborate and learned. He combats the views of Barton and Simons, so unfavorable to the sanitory condition of New-Orleans, and defends, with some force, the opposite opinion. Although we think there are flaws in the Doctor's reasoning, we will not deny high praise to his labors; and in our next shall endeavor to draw largely upon them.

New Grammar for the Germans to learn the English Language. Key to the New Grammar for Germans, &c.

The above works belong to the admirable series of Ollendorff, which have such wide reputation. They are published by Appleton, and are for sale by J. B. Steele.

Harpers' Monthly Magazine—International Monthly Magazine.

We regard these publications as likely to effect very much of a revolution in the character of reading, which the public at a cheap expense are able to enjoy. Although in existence but a few months, the sterling merit of these periodicals have commended them to a circulation altogether unprecedented in the publication business in this country. They will supersede most of the light and flimsy stuff that have, for so long a time, under the name of literature, been degrading or currupting the public taste. No article finds a place in these monthlies that are not of a high tone and excellence, and they are extracted from the leading journals and periodicals of Great Britain. In addition, each number contains several handsome illustrations, fashion plates etc., with comments by the editors on literary, political and general topics in Europe and in our own country, brought up to the time of publication. The *International* has begun a novel to appear in parts, from the pen of Mr. James. We know of no works we could more heartily commend than the two before us.

Farmers' Guide to Scientific and Practical Agriculture, detailing the labors of the farmer, in all their variety, and adapting them to the seasons of the year as they successively occur: by Henry Stephens, F. R. S. E., author of "The Book of the Farm," ect. etc.; assisted by John P. Norton, M. A. Professor of Scientific Agriculture in Yale College, New-Haven. New-York, Leonard Scott & Co.

We give the full title of this work which is published in parts, at twenty-five cents each, and will be finished in about 22 numbers, the price of subscription to the whole being $5. It will contain 20 steel en-

gravings and 600 wood cuts. The work has received the unanimous approval of agriculturists in Europe and in our own country, and has been noticed by us before. We beg the publishers to send us the first nine numbers and all after twelve, as they have miscarried through the fault of the agent at New-Orleans. Send through J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans.

INSURANCE ON NEGROES.

In the fourth volume of our Review, an article appeared from Dr. Nott, of Mobile, containing a variety of valuable statistics upon this subject, which we commended at the time to the attention of our planters.

It pleases us now to call attention to the Circular of H. G. Heartt, Esq., in our advertising columns, who has been appointed Actuary, or Agent for the Southern States, of the British Commercial Life Insurance Company. This great Company was established in London, in 1820, with a capital of $3,000,000, to which, a surplus of $850,000 profits has been added. At a late meeting of the directors, they decided hereafter to include risks upon slaves in the Southern States of the Union; and are now prepared to make the fullest guarantee against all risks of life or accident. By hypothecating the policies of the Company, our planters will be able to realize money facilities with their merchants upon negroes, as well as any other description of property. The business is exclusively confined to Life Insurance—a subject we hope to present in a strong light before long in the Review, having been promised a paper upon it.

For other than slave policies, the Company has two bureaux, and those who may wish to secure their families, may do so on the stock-principle—the profits going to the stockholders, or on the mutual-system, the profits going into the fund to the credit of the insured, and settled at their death.

TO SUBSCRIBERS.

Those who have received bills within the last few months, and have not remitted, will please do so at the earliest convenience, without waiting for an agent. Who pays quickly, pays doubly. Our grateful thanks are due to the many who have done this.

We again solicit orders for our bound sets, and have some on hand handsomely bound. There are three series.

1st series, beginning January, 1846, 9 vols.
2d series, " July, 1849, 3 vols.
3d series, " July, 1850, 1 vol.

We will give any other number of the Review, or the value, or any other book ordered of the same value, for copies of the February Number, 1848, and August Number, 1849, both of which are nearly exhausted in our office. Those who have only broken sets, will, in addition, confer an obligation by sending these numbers. We will give volumes X. and XI. for volumes 1 and 2.

TO PLANTERS AND OTHERS.

SUGAR ESTATE FOR SALE.

The attention of planters is called to the notice at the head of our advertising columns, of a valuable *Sugar Estate* for sale upon accommodating terms. Persons desirous of further information in regard to it, will please address the Editor of the Review, *post-paid.*

We also recommend the advertising department of Estates to the attention of the planting community, as the Review, circulating now extensively throughout all the Middle, Southern, and South-Western States, reaches a larger number of planters than can be effected in any other mode. Our terms are reasonable, and where we act as agents in effecting sales, the remuneration exacted will be very moderate. It is our intention to call *editorial* attention to the advertisements, and to make the Review an *index of all estates in the market.*

To merchants, we recommend the *Advertiser*, as a mode of reaching their country customers. We intend to admit only the cards of a few of the best houses in each branch of business, as we have done in the present number. It will be an interesting directory to our friends, and of much value. The plan contemplates names in all of the other Southern cities, and it is in charge of Mr. Pratt, who has published several important business directories at the North.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

The Editor makes his best bow to the correspondent of the Matagorda (Texas) Tribune, who, in a kindly reference to the mission of the Review in Texas, was pleased to say:

"The Editor has sought to make its authority on all matters pertaining to the cotton and sugar staples, by obtaining the most recent information on these several subjects,

and by offering the highest pecuniary rewards for original essays on agriculture, the manufacture of sugar, &c., &c. He labors assiduously, and not unfrequently, under circumstances of disappointment, difficulty and embarrassment, which would be perfectly overwhelming to a less earnest-minded man. His efforts to serve the great interests of the South are at last beginning to be appreciated by the recent large increase of subscribers, of whom Texas furnishes quite a respectable share."

A friend in Louisiana complaining of the difficulties of the sugar culture in the State, asks us some questions, which we would be delighted, would some of our subscribers in Florida or Texas answer. Have you resided in South Florida?—What are its merits as a sugar country?—What quality of land?——What facilities of navigation? What health?—Are there good sugar lands in Eastern Florida near St. Augustine?—Is Florida to be preferred to Texas for sugar? Our friend seems to prefer the former, and would wish to locate near some county town, etc.

Speaking of Texas, we learn by a private letter, "The Brazos is as low as it has been for 29 years, yet the steamer Elite is this day at Richmond, Fort Bend Co., with a fair freight from the mouth. This settles forever the navigability of this stream at all seasons of the year. With this fact settled, can the world produce such another sugar region as that of the Brazos?

Want of space excludes until another month, the *projet* of a levee system, from Mr. Stein, of Mobile, and some remarks of our own upon Dr. Dowler's *Necrology of New-Orleans*.

We shall publish in our next, a biography and steel engraved portrait of Wm. Gregg, manufacturer of South Carolina, with a fine view of Graniteville, to be followed with portraits, etc. of John G. Winter, of Georgia; V. K. Stevenson, of Tennessee; Hamilton Smith, of Kentucky; H. W. Conner, of Charleston, S. C., etc., etc. Our friends in the different states will please instruct us as to their prominent men of enterprise, and further this department of the work.

We are indebted to Messrs. Soule and Downs, U. S. Senate, for public documents, and particularly for a Report on the Public Lands of Louisiana, from which, hereafter, we shall make some valuable extracts.

Our friend, Professor McCulloh's translation of the Report of the French Academy of Sciences on M. Rousseau's plan of sugar manufacture, is necessarily postponed to the March No.

We design publishing Professor Dew's papers on slavery, having finished Hammond & Harper, if some friend will send us a copy. It cannot be had in New-Orleans.

EDITORS' NEW YEAR'S ADDRESS.

The frank and free expressions we have given to our sentiments, in reference to *Southern Rights*, has been met by a good many 'stop my Reviews,' and as yet by scarcely a single "send your work hereafter to me and the following new subscribers." By the way, we have heard of *Southern Rights Associations*, but in no instance has encouragement come from them. We get no clubs of new subscribers, nor have resolutions been published in our favor! Though somewhat of an *ultra* ourself, we question if nineteen out of every twenty of our subscribers are not of the more *moderate sort*. Yet these generous gentlemen put up with differences of opinions that are minor, believing our heart to be right, and all our aims our country's. Meanwhile, our brother *ultras*, without putting their hands into their pockets, look complacently on, and marvel that we are able to sustain the work so well. Nearly all of our subscribers were obtained by *personal* solicitations from *our agents*, whilst thousands and thousands were subscribers to the *Southern Press*, through the active services of friends! We never have received one dollar *gratuitously* in aid of the Review, but are now rather straining every nerve, to pay off a debt of several thousand dollars contracted in the first year of its existence.

This is a naked statement of facts, and we leave the inferences to the people of the South. If we have done them some service and they know it, are they prepared to stand by us with a generous and unwavering purpose? Where we agree in sentiment let it be an incentive to exertion in our behalf. and where we disagree, let us reflect how frail is mortality after all, and how apt one man is to be wrong as well as another. Surely there are a thousand points of *harmony* between all *true Southern men*, and it would be very idle to quarrel about the few points of separation. To elevate the character of our reigisn is the aim of every one of us.

In the opening of a new year and of the X volume of the Review, this address is not out of place. Let it be met on the part of friends, with several hundred new subscribers, and prompt remittances from all who are in any wise indebted.

The day will come, and that before our hairs are "silvered o'er," when the services we are doing to the South will be universally recognised and admitted. It may come when life's thread has all been spun out for us—but come it must, and this shall cheer us through the trials and discomfitures of the hour. As King Harry said,

"He that outlives this day and comes safe home,
——Be he ne'er so vile.
This day shall gentle his condition,
And gentlemen in England, now abed,
Shall hold their manhood cheap, while any speaks,
Who fought with us," &c. &c.

Wm Gregg

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ESTERN

1846.

IES, VOL. II., No. 3.

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DE BOW'S

SOUTHERN AND WESTERN REVIEW.

ESTABLISHED JANUARY 1, 1846.

MARCH, 1851.

VOL. X., O. S.....2d SERIES. VOL. IV., No. 3.—3d SERIES, VOL. II., No. 3.

ART. I.—THE STATE OF GEORGIA.*

LAWS, JURISPRUDENCE, MILITIA, EDUCATION, SCHOOLS, ETC.

We will make one or two more remarks about our Supreme Court, and then pass on to another subject. One great difficulty in the way of this judiciary is, that it has to be holden in so many different places. This prevents the state from supplying its judges with a good library, and thus these functionaries are dependent upon the libraries, often incomplete and unsatisfactory, of private members of the bar, for consultation and reference. Under some circumstances, it might be more convenient to parties litigant to have the courts holden in several different places. But when a state, like Georgia, is intersected in every portion by rail-roads, already built or building, and the facilities of access to the capital are so great, it would be better to have Milledgeville as the only place where the court should hold its sessions; and thus, at that place, the state could concentrate, for the benefit of this tribunal, a good public law library, which would conduce much to the ends of public justice. An excellent feature in the law establishing this court is, that every case returned for its consideration must be disposed of at the first term. Business does not, therefore, accumulate on the docket from term to term, and parties are not subjected to those long delays which too often disgrace our higher tribunals.

The laws of Georgia were compiled by Marbury and Crawford, from its earliest settlement as a British province, in 1755, to 1800; and by Augustus S. Clayton, from the year 1800 to the year 1810, inclusive; by L. Q. C. Lamar, from 1810 to 1820, and by William C. Dawson, from 1820 to 1830, inclusive.

* Continued from January Number, 1851. We shall be delighted to receive similar papers in regard to each of the Southern and South-Western States. - [EDITOR.

Digests of these laws have been made by Prince and Hotchkiss; and an Analysis of the Statutes of Georgia, compiled by Howell Cobb, Esq.

Prince's Digest is the best book on the Statute Law of Georgia that there is. This brings the statutes down only as far as 1837, however. Thirteen years work great changes in the laws of any country in the middle of the nineteenth century, and therefore new digests have been required. Howell Cobb and William Hotchkiss have attempted to supply this requisition. Cobb's Analysis we consider a pretty good book, especially as it contains a great many forms which afford material assistance to the young practitioner.

As to the Digest of Hotchkiss, were it printed on shucks instead of on paper, it might afford good pabulum for oxen; but surely no one would be silly enough to suppose, for a moment, that this *hotch*—not *kiss*—but *potch*—in its present state of rawness, would afford aliment for the mind of a lawyer, whose legal appetite had been whetted by an intense search after some obscure Georgia statute. The book has been utterly repudiated by the profession, and is under perpetual injunction, from which all the *bills* in Christendom can never relieve it. It is consigned to the tomb of the Capulets. *Requiescat in pace!*

The code of penal laws of this state was enacted in 1833, and went into operation on the first day of June, 1834. Some of its provisions have, since that time, been amended, and other sections added. It superseded the code of 1817. The frequent substitution of one system for another—the establishment of a penitentiary, and then its immediate abandonment—indicate a very unsettled state of the popular mind in regard to the different plans. In 1816 the state abandoned the sanguinary criminal laws which had existed, and adopted a new system of pains and penalties, altogether more compatible with the condition of the people, and better suited to the advanced stage of civilization. The discipline of a state prison was then but imperfectly understood, and the changes it effected in the old system, together with a very imperfect execution of the plan, excited a decided distrust, which soon presented itself in open opposition to it. After sixteen years of experience, therefore, it gave way to the earnest opposition which was brought to bear upon it, and the legislature of 1831 abolished it. The state was thrown back upon a code which it had repudiated, and criminal justice was administered according to laws at once odious to humanity, and behind the intelligence of the age. But this condition of things did not last. The change was palpably felt: public opinion again reacted in its favor: a reform was demanded, and the penitentiary was again restored. But the old code, with its flagrant defects, was found inadequate to accomplish the purposes of the new system, and accordingly in 1832 the legislature passed a resolution authorizing the Governor to appoint a committee of three persons to prepare a plan for the penitentiary buildings, digest a system of laws for its organization, and revise and amend the penal laws of the state. The committee appointed by Governor Lumpkins were: William Schley, Joseph H. Lumpkin (now one of

the Supreme Judges,) and John A. Cuthbert; all gentlemen of eminent legal attainments. They reported to the legislature of 1833, and that report is the existing code of penal laws, with some modifications and amendments. This system has been in operation since 1834; and although the test of fifteen years has pointed out defects, experience has suggested no better mode of administering the criminal justice of the state. Some of its penalties are severe—necessarily so—but not more so than is demanded by the safety of the state and the security of its citizens. None of its provisions are sanguinary and cruel; and while they may be objectionable to that sort of fanaticism which would abolish all capital punishments, they accord with the principles of justice, and come up to the enlightened humanity of the age. Its sanctions are not in a temper of wanton cruelty, but of conservative and reforming equity. It has dispensed with the hideous relics of barbarism—the mutilating knife, the brand and the post, the pillory and the scourge. There are thirteen crimes, which, according to the penal code, are punished capitally.

"There are, no doubt, defects in the code, which experience will suggest and which time will reform. The experience of every year has resulted in improvements in the dicipline of the State Prison. It has, after years of pecuniary embarrassment, surmounted its misfortunes, and now sustains itself and brings a small revenue to the state."

Our author next takes up the "militia system." This is farce, *farce*, FARCE! Once every year or two they have in Georgia what they call a militia muster, and if there is anything on earth which is truly ludicrous, and, at the same time, disgraceful and contemptible, it is one of these "*musters*." Get two negroes, one with a reed fife and the other with a broken-headed kettle-drum—then parade several score of men, boys and old women, helter-skelter after the music, with every alternate personage bawling out: "Shoulder—Arms!" and you will have some idea of a Georgia *muster*.*

The militia system in Georgia is synonymous with epithets of contempt and reproach. "It should be repealed," is upon the lips of every one. Yet it is not repealed. A desire, and we hope we may say a determination, to organize our militia and encourage volunteer companies, has recently sprung up amongst our people. They begin to speak of establishing armories, magazines, arsenals, cannon foundries, &c., with a zeal which bespeaks good things. Our oldest, wisest, and most prudent men are recommending this thing, and the signs of the times clearly indicate a necessity for it. Shall we not organize for armed opposition to any encroachment upon our rights? We may as well speak plainly. Shall we not prepare in time of peace for war, if war should come? Shall we not be prepared against the time when abolition shall let slip the dogs of war to bathe their fangs in our vitals? It is high time we were looking to our inter-

* The curious in reference to Georgia tactics, may refer to an article in Longstreet's "Georgia Scenes," headed the "Militia Muster," for amusing and instructive details with regard to this subject.

ests. The next legislature, we have no doubt, will adopt some policy in regard to our military system, which will put the state in a position to defend herself in these perilous times. We will give what our author says about our "*militia system.*"

"The militia of Georgia are organized into divisions, brigades, regiments, battalions, and companies. Each division is commanded by a major-general, whose staff consists of one division inspector with the rank of lieutenant colonel, one quarter-master and two aids, with the rank of major, each. Each brigade is commanded by a brigadier-general, whose staff consists of a brigade inspector with the rank of major, a brigade quarter-master, and an aid-de-camp with the rank of captain. Each regiment is commanded by a colonel, whose staff consists of a quarter-master, a pay-master, an adjutant with the rank of lieutenant, and one surgeon and mate, with a lieutenant-colonel and major, a sergeant-major, quarter-master-sergeant, and a drum and fife major. Each company consists of one captain, a first and second lieutenant and ensign, four sergeants and four corporals, a drummer and fifer, and sixty-four privates. At present there are thirteen divisions, each commanded by a major-general, comprising twenty-six brigades under the command of brigadier-generals."

We will merely say here, that although this looks very well on paper, it does not, in reality, exist. Not one-half of the offices are filled, and, as to each company's containing sixty-four privates, it is frequently the case that in one of the militia captain's districts there are not even a half-dozen privates.

On the subject of education, Mr. White gives an extract from a "Discourse delivered before the Georgia Historical Society, on the 12th day of February, 1845, by Dr. Church, President of the University of Georgia." We will give some portion of this extract. Dr. Church well says, that "had we carried out the views of her early patriots and the framers of our first constitution, Georgia would now have a system of education equal, if not superior, to that of any state in the Union." This is true; but, much to our shame, we have not carried out the intentions of our fathers. Still Georgia has done much for the cause of education within her borders, and will, we have no doubt, do much more.

"The first constitution of Georgia was adopted the 5th of February, 1777, only a few months after the declaration of independence. The 54th section of this constitution declares, "Schools shall be erected in each county, and supported at the general expense of the state." This is an important record in the history of our education. On the 31st of July, 1783, the legislature appropriated 1000 acres of land to each county for support of free schools. In 1784, a few months after the ratification of the treaty of peace by which our national independence was acknowledged, the legislature again, in session at Savannah, passed an act appropriating 40,000 acres of land for the endowment of a college or university. This act commences with the remarkable preamble: "Whereas the encouragement of religion and learning is an act of great importance to any community, and must tend to the prosperity and advantage of the same."

"In 1785 the charter of the university was granted, the preamble to which would do honor to any legislature, and will stand a monument to the wisdom and patriotism of those who framed it and those who adopted it."

"As it is the distinguishing happiness of free governments that civil order should be the result of choice and not of necessity, and the common wishes of the people become the laws of the land; their public prosperity, and even existence, very much depend upon suitably forming the minds and morals of their citizens. When the minds of the people in general are viciously disposed and unprincipled, and their conduct disorderly, a free government will be attended with greater convulsions, and evils more horrid than the wild, uncultivated state of nature. It can only be happy where the public principles and opinions are properly directed and their manners regulated.

"This is an influence beyond the stretch of laws and punishments, and can be claimed only by religion and education. It should therefore be among the first objects of those who wish well to national prosperity, to encourage and support the principles of religion and morality, and early to place the youth under the forming hand of society, that by instruction they may be moulded to the love of virtue and good order. Sending them abroad to other countries will not answer the purpose; is too humiliating an acknowledgment of the ignorance or inferiority of our own, and will always be the cause of such great foreign attachments, that upon principles of policy it is inadmissible."

"In 1792 an act was passed appropriating one thousand pounds for the endowment of an academy in each county.

"In 1798 a third constitution was adopted. The 13th section of the 4th article declares: 'The arts and sciences shall be patronized in one or more seminaries of learning.'

"In 1817 two hundred and fifty thousand dollars were appropriated to the support of poor schools. In 1818, every tenth and one hundredth lot of land in seven new counties was appropriated to the cause of education; and in 1821, two hundred and fifty thousand dollars were set apart for the support of county academies.

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"Georgia has often been represented as more inattentive to the great interests of education than almost any other state in the Union —a statement which does great injustice to our citizens. A correct history of our state will show, that those who have preceded us have done much for the cause of education. A full statement of all which has been given by the citizens of the state, would doubtless surprise many. I cannot at this time give a history of what has been done by our citizens in the cause of education. A few instances, however, will be sufficient to sustain me in the remark, that we have not been as utterly regardless of the interests of our education as many suppose. A number of our academies have respectable, and some of them very ample endowments: the result of both legislative aid and private liberality. Meson Academy, at Lexington, Oglethorpe

county, received from ten to fifteen thousand dollars—a permanent endowment from the individual whose name it bears. The Burke County Academy has a permanent fund of more than seven thousand dollars, and within a few years the citizens of this county have given to other institutions probably over $20,000. The Richmond Academy has buildings, and library, and apparatus worth probably $30,000—an annuity from real estate amounting to $1,600, and bank stock to the amount of $12,000, besides lands, which are rapidly increasing in value.

"Here, also, is a Medical College, endowed by the state to the amount of, perhaps, $35,000, and possessing buildings, apparatus, library, and the usual means for conducting such an institution, to the amount of $50,000. This institution is now well established, and justly meriting, and largely receiving, the patronage of the state and other states. The Chatham Academy has large and valuable buildings, and funds sufficient to sustain an institution of superior character. In the village of Washington there is, besides the Male Academy, which has always been well sustained, a Female Institute of very high character; for the establishment of which the citizens of that county have come forward with liberal subscriptions. They have a beautiful building and library, and apparatus sufficient to render it an institution of high order. In La Grange, Troup county, are academies, both male and female, upon which the inhabitants of that village and county have expended large sums, and where hundreds of both sexes have, for years, enjoyed superior advantages for instruction. No one can visit these, and many other Academies and High Schools, which are found in all our older and thickly-settled counties, without seeing that a large amount has been expended by our citizens for purposes of education. The Montpelier Institute, under the patronage of the Episcopal Church in Georgia, has, probably, cost $20,000 in its establishment. One individual gave $10,000. The Female College at Macon has, probably, cost not less than $70,000. For the establishment and endowment of Emory College there have been raised between $80,000 and $100,000. For the establishment and endowment of Oglethorpe University, between $80,000 and $100,000. For the establishment and endowment of Mercer University and a Theological Seminary, between $150,000 and $200,000 have been given.

"The citizens of Georgia have given to the Theological Seminary at Columbia, S. C., about $60,000; to Randolph, Macon College, N. C., $10,000; to the Columbian College, D. C., $25,000; to the Theological Seminary at Princeton, N. J., $25,000; to the Theological Seminary at Andover, Mass., a considerable amount—how much I am unable to say, as I have received no answer to an inquiry touching that subject, which I addressed to one of its professors. I know that Mr. John Whitehead, of Burke county, gave $2,500. We have here, for the purpose of establishing institutions of learning, private subscriptions, by the citizens of Georgia, and that within a few years, to the amount of more than $600,000.

"I have mentioned only a small part which has been given for

this purpose in the state. Our people are not, they never have been, regardless of this subject; but from our peculiar situation we have, thus far, failed to unite and concentrate the action of our whole people. They have the ability and the disposition to spread the light of knowledge over our state. Let them be properly enlightened, and they will come forth with an energy which will overcome all obstacles. That our University has not accomplished more, is, undoubtedly, a source of regret to every friend of knowledge; that it has accomplished as much as it has, is, perhaps, a cause of rejoicing to all its friends. It will not be denied by any one, that this institution has been gradually advancing in usefulness since its funds have been sufficient to sustain the expenses necessarily incident to a respectable college. These expenses are much larger than many, who have had no experience in the management of such institutions, apprehend.

"The University of Georgia had for an endowment 40,000 acres of land, located by the surveyors in what are now Hancock, Greene, Oglethorpe, Clark, Jackson, Franklin, and in the fork of Tugalo and Seneca Rivers. By the treaty of Beaufort, the last tract was lost by falling within the State of South Carolina. Thus 8,000 acres, equal in value to more than one-eighth of the endowment of the University, were wholly lost. The remaining lands were long unsaleable, and could not be rented for any valuable consideration. The country was new, and land abundant and cheap—much, even of a good quality, could be obtained by merely surveying it, and paying the fees for granting. The lands, therefore, of the University, could not be made available for any valuable purpose, and the trustees were unable to commence the institution. None of the lands belonging to the University were sold until 1803, and then only a small portion, and at a low price. Most of them remained unsold and unproductive till 1816, when they were nearly all sold, and $100,000 vested in bank, as a permanent fund for the support of the institution. The legislature, in consideration of the large amount of bonds for these lands, over the $100,000, guaranteed that this permanent fund should yield annually eight per cent.

"The college was nearly suspended from 1816 to 1819, and, by aid of the surplus funds, during this period, the debts of the institution were paid, the buildings repaired, the small library increased, and the philosophical and chemical apparatus greatly enlarged. From this period the institution began to assume a respectable stand; its students increased—the Board obtained the services of a respectable number of officers, and continually enlarged the library and apparatus.

"The first Commencement was on Thursday, the 31st May, 1804. The exercises were held under an arbor, erected in the campus; the number of graduates was nine. Of these, four are now living, viz.: Col. Gibson Clark, Gen. Jeptha V. Harris, Col. Wm. H. Jackson, and James Jackson, at present a Professor of Chemistry and Natural History in the University. The Hon. Augustus S. Clayton, one of its most untiring friends to the day of his death, was also a member

of this class. Thomas Irwin, Jared Irwin, Robert Rutherford, and William Williamson, were the four remaining members. The whole number of graduates is 533, among whom are found a large number of our most useful and distinguished citizens.

"The University has buildings which have cost perhaps $75,000 or $80,000. It has a very extensive and complete philosophical apparatus, a good chemical laboratory, a large mineral cabinet, and a very neat botanic garden. These have cost at least 20,000 dollars. The two literary societies have libraries amounting to about 5,000 volumes. The officers of the University are now a president, six professors and two tutors. Considering all the circumstances, may it not be said that its trustees have done much; that they have not betrayed their trust; and that though the state may not have done as much as many friends of learning could desire, she has done more than many apprehend—more than many states which are supposed to have been very liberal in their endowment and support of seminaries of learning. It is true that the citizens of the state, as individuals, have given but little to the institution. It has not been the recipient of such legacies and donations as have been bestowed upon the older colleges. But may not the liberality of our citizens, which has been so free towards other and private seminaries, be yet turned towards this? And since so much has been done by the trustees to carry out the designs of its enlightened and patriotic founders, may we not reasonably suppose that the state hereafter will appropriate to it whatever may be necessary to place it by the side of the most favored and useful colleges in the land?"

There are in Georgia four male colleges for scholastic education, and then there is the Medical College besides. Franklin College, located in Athens, Clark county, is the state institution, and the most respectable site of learning in the state. Much is said of it in the extract already given from the address of Dr. Church, the amiable and accomplished president.

"The character of Dr. Church is so favorably known to the people of Georgia, that it is almost superfluous to say anything in relation to him. With a mind richly furnished with the stores of learning—with manners proverbially captivating—with uncommon kindness of disposition, and with the prudence and firmness requisite to be possessed by those to whom the people of Georgia commit the education of their sons, at a period the most critical in the life of youth, Dr. Church has every qualification for the exalted position which he has long filled.

Associated with him are seven Professors, viz.:—

James Jackson, A. M., Professor of Natural History and Modern Languages; appointed in 1823.

James P. Waddel, A. M., Professor of Ancient Languages, a son of Dr. Moses Waddel; appointed in 1836.

Charles F. McKay, A. M., Professor of Mathematics, Astronomy and Civil Engineering; appointed in 1836.

John Le Conte, M. D., Professor of Natural Philosophy and Chemistry; appointed in 1846.

Hon. Joseph Henry Lumpkin, Professor of Law; appointed in 1847.

N. H. Wood, A. M., Adjunct Professor of Mathematics; appointed in 1848.

The Rev. William J. Brantley, A. M., Professor of Belles Lettres, Oratory and History; appointed in 1848.

M. C. Fulton, A. M., Tutor in Ancient Languages; appointed in 1847.

The University is now in a state of great prosperity. The number of students, according to the last catalogue, was one hundred and forty.

The resources of the University are 100,000 dollars in stock of the Bank of the State of Georgia, and about fifteen hundred dollars in other stocks, together with the proceeds of the tuition of students, and a small amount of town lots. The buildings are :—

Two three-story, 120 by 45 feet, for lodging-rooms for students; a philosophical hall and chemical laboratory, a chapel, a library and cabinet, president's house, and three houses for the professors. The library contains between eight and nine thousand volumes. The philosophical apparatus is one of the most extensive and complete in the country; the chemical laboratory is ample; the cabinet of minerals large, and the botanic garden in good order.

The college has forty-four acres of ground on which the buildings are erected, and which is set apart by the legislature of the state for that purpose, and can never be diminished.

Connected with the college are two societies. Each has a very neat and convenient hall, erected at the expense of the society, and costing about $4,000 each. The library of each of these associations contains between two and three thousand volumes.

Mercer University, a sectarian college under the control of the Baptists, was called after the Rev. Jesse Mercer, a man of some talent and a good deal of zeal and energy for his day and generation. This institution has funds to the amount of $138,200, besides valuable buildings and an extensive tract of land. It is indebted principally to Mr. Mercer for its endowment, and hence its name. It is situated in a very pretty little village called Penfield, Greene county, called after Mr. Josiah Penfield of Savannah, who bequeathed to the Baptist Convention of Georgia $2,500 to aid in the education of poor young men preparing for the ministry. Other funds were obtained, and in 1833 was established a literary and theological institution, with a department for manual labor. In 1838 it received a charter from the legislature under the name of Mercer University. In 1845 the manual labor department was dropped, and the present course of theological instruction adopted. The library of this college contains 2,000 volumes. Additions are occasionally being made to the apparatus. Valuable libraries are possessed by the two literary societies. There are six professorships in this college. The Rev. Mr. Dagg, President, fills one, and in addition to him there are five other professors. From the catalogue before our author, it appeared that there were in attendance upon this institution 120 students.

Oglethorpe University is another sectarian college under the control of the Presbyterians, situated at Midway, near Milledgeville, in Baldwin county. The Synod of South Carolina and Georgia has the immediate direction of the affairs of this seminary. The President is the Rev. Samuel K. Talmage, a most worthy and intelligent man, well fitted to superintend the education of youth. He is a graduate of Princeton College, and was elected to his present post in 1841. There are four professors and one rector of the preparatory school. The usual buildings, societies, libraries and apparatus, are connected with this institution.

A third sectarian college in Georgia is that of the Methodists, situated in Oxford, a little village in Newton county. It was founded in 1837, and was called after Bishop Emory of the Methodist Episcopal Church. The Rev. Ignatius Few, LL. D., was the first president; then Judge Longstreet—that wonderful man, author of "Georgia Scenes"—succeeded, and was president ten years. In 1848 he was called to a college in Mississippi, over which he now presides. Should he see this, it bears to him the best wishes of an old pupil. Dr. George Pierce is now the president. There are five professorships, one filled by the president. The usual number of students in attendance is about 120. Connected with the institution is a preparatory department.

ART. II.—SUGAR.*

M. ROUSSEAU'S PROCESS OF MANUFACTURE.

THE Academy having devolved upon us the examination of a memoir upon the manufacture of sugar, presented by M. Rousseau, at the meeting of July 29th, 1850, we respectfully submit the following report:

New processes designed to improve the extraction of sugar always excite a lively interest. This is due to the fact, that the sugar industry, alike agricultural and manufacturing, tends to increase the products of the soil of France; it developes labor, and diffuses useful mechanical and chemical ideas, within our territory; and it concerns the principal production of our colonies.

The importance of the manufacture of sugar is great, also, if measured by the increasing extent of the demand for that article; our home market absorbs annually about 120 millions of kilogrammes; and must, without doubt, soon require much more. The consumption may indeed even be tripled in France, if we judge by the

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* Report to the Academy of Sciences, Paris, October 14th, 1850, upon a memoir of M. Rousseau, relative to the manufacture of sugar, by a committee composed of MM. Thenard, Boussingault and Payen. Translated and communicated by R. S. McCulloh, Prof. of Nat. Philos., in the College of New-Jersey, at Princeton, &c.

progress thereof among some of our neighbors.* All means of rendering the operations more perfect, and the products more pure, further this end.

During the last forty years, our skillful manufacturers, at the cost of persevering, varied and expensive experiments, have introduced remarkable improvements in our sugar factories and refineries. Yet there still remain problems to be solved, and progress to be made in France, and much more in our colonies; for on an average, but 0.6 of the sugar in the beet is obtained; and scarcely 0.4 of the quantity (almost double, however) of that in the cane. The experimental labors of our manufacturing chemists are at this moment more active than ever, and we may hope that the yield upon a large scale will shortly approximate closely to the limits assigned by science.

Among the circumstances which constitute grave obstacles to the realization of the maximum result, we must certainly reckon the very complicated composition of the juice of the beet and of the sugar-cane; a composition unstable, and variable according to the nature of the soil, climate and season.

The substances which engender fermentation, and develop colored or viscous matter, often cause destruction of sugar, and lead to a complication of phenomena very unfavorable for its extraction. A large number of reagents have been tried, either in laboratories or in sugar-houses, for separating these injurious substances; but only two have remained in practical use: slaked lime, which renders insoluble several albuminous and pectic substances, and bone-black, which removes an excess of lime, part of the coloring, and other foreign matters.

In 1811, M. Barruel, chief of the chemical works of the Faculty of Medicine, recommended, in a note inserted in the *Moniteur*, the use of carbonic acid to precipitate lime from beet-juice, defecated, as usual, with about 3 of lime for 1000 of juice. Subsequently, M. Baudrimont tried, on a large scale, its application to the purpose.

In 1833, M. Kuhlman, of Lille, supposing that, in the ordinary defecation, all the nitrogenous matter of the juice is precipitated, but that there is always combination of sugar with the lime, proposed to effect the separation of the lime by means which appeared to him more prompt and economical than the use of bone-black: to wit, the injection of carbonic acid gas into beet-juice, after the usual defecation.

Again, in 1838, M. Kuhlman, considering the experiments of M. Pelouze upon the persistence of the properties of sugar when disengaged from its combination with lime, admitting also that lime prevents the absorption of oxygen in defecated juice, declared that a process of manufacture might be founded upon this conservative property of sugar, regardless of any influence of lime during the work; that consequently, it would be well to subject the sugar com-

* The consumption in England and Scotland is 15 kilogs. per individual, or 4½ times greater than in France; in Holland, the consumption exceeds 8 kilogs., or 2½ times that with us; and in Paris, it is 10 kilogs., or three times the mean consumption in France.

bined with lime to the greater part of the operations requisite for its extraction: and that, by operating in this manner, the bone-black would be economized, and the work facilitated.

Trials were made in accordance with these views: the juice was boiled with an excess (15 per 1000) of lime, without complete separation of the feculencies. And the precipitation of the lime by carbonic acid was performed, after this ebullition or partial evaporation, and at the temperature of 25 to 30 degrees (centigrade) only.

If the results, obtained by such means in the laboratory, appeared favorable, they could not, however, be realized on a large scale: no factory in France adopted a mode of working founded on a like basis.

Such was the state of the question when, towards the close of 1848, M. Rousseau undertook to show, on a large scale, a process of extraction of sugar, of which he had determined, by long investigation, the principal conditions of success,—conditions very different, as we shall show, from those which had previously failed.

He repeated his experiments upon small quantities of juice, in the presence of M. Cail, one of our most skillful constructors of sugar apparatus, and of M. Leguime, an experienced sugar manufacturer.

These gentlemen became convinced that the new process would be advantageous; they therefore put it into practice, and obtained favorable results from the first.

The method of M. Rousseau requires: 1st, the use of a certain excess of lime, at a determined temperature; 2d, the separation of the scum, and of the precipitated substances; 3d, the immediate elimination of the lime united with the sugar; 4th, filtration through granular bone-black; 5th, rapid evaporation, crystallization and draining, in the usual manner.

If it has been supposed that this process is but the revival of that indicated in 1833, or in 1838, though these invariably failed, while the new process is entirely successful; a more attentive consideration will render evident the fundamental differences between them.

M. Rousseau explains in his memoir the characteristic features which distinguish his process from the methods previously proposed, and we must say, that the experiments tried by us to verify the facts announced by him, establish those facts and the views deduced from them.

By setting forth the causes of failure of the first methods, and the necessary conditions which have assured the success of the new, the difference between them may, we think, be clearly defined.

The first mode indicated by the predecessors of M. Rousseau, had evidently for its object and result, the separation of the lime after ordinary defecation; or the substitution, in this respect, of carbonic acid for bone-black. But it will be perceived that this substitution would not be efficient, because it furnishes no equivalent for the purifying and decolorizing properties of the animal charcoal.

The second mode was inapplicable industrially, for it offered several grave inconveniences without compensation.

Indeed: 1st. The incomplete defecation left in the turbid juice organic substances, which the carbonic acid finally set free to act upon the sugar, by disengaging them from their combination with the lime.

2d. The juice or syrup containing saccharates of lime, potash and soda, even if limpid, could not be evaporated either as quickly, or as easily, as solutions of sugar isolated from such combinations.

3d. The temperature of ebullition, evidently higher and more prolonged, would, concurrently with a strong alkaline reaction, produce a thorough alteration of several ternary nitrogenous substances; this alteration manifested itself by the disengagement of ammoniacal vapors, and by the development of a strong odor and a brown coloration; and even supposing the sugar to have remained unchanged, its extraction was rendered more difficult.

4th. Under such circumstances, the carbonic acid used to saturate the lime might arrest the progress of the evil, but it could not remedy the alterations produced.

We will now show that the conditions combined in the method of M. Rousseau are quite different, and that they rest upon new experimental observations.

M. Rousseau performs the defecation with a quantity of lime so large,* that not only the substances which have a greater affinity for it than sugar has, but also those which have even a less affinity, and consequently the sugar itself, can combine therewith.

The result is, that the saccharate of lime remains in solution, while the foreign substances are separated in greater proportion than by the ordinary mode of defecation.

The experiments which we have tried upon the products precipitated by graduated doses of lime, have shown that several different organic compounds may thus be successively separated from the juice.

The essential conditions of the new mode of defecation consist in pouring a strong emulsion of slaked lime into the beet-juice, heated preparatorily to about 55 degrees centigrade (130° Fahr.) The temperature is elevated, while the coagulation at the same time becomes more marked; and as soon as the thermometer indicates 80 a 90 degrees cent. (175° a 195° Fahr.), but especially before ebullition commences, the heating is arrested by shutting the cock which admits the steam.†

The liquor is then drawn off, and flocculent matter in suspension is all carefully separated from it by filtration.

The filtered juice flows directly into a steam-pan with a double bottom, in which the saturation of the lime by carbonic acid at once proceeds.

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* M. Rousseau has observed two states of combination of sugar with lime; the compound, which has more of the base, can yield a portion thereof to the foreign substances to be precipitated.

† One of the principal signs of a perfect defecation by this process, is the decoloration and clarification of the liquid; the doses of lime which produce these effects, triple or quadruple of those usually employed, are greater as the season advances, so that they must even sometimes be doubled towards the close of the work, that is to say, three months after pulling up the beets.

At first a voluminous froth rises; but as viscidity disappears by the decomposition of the saccharates, the syrup, becoming more fluid, allows the gas to escape as freely as through water. This change guides the workman, who arrests, at the proper moment, the insufflation of the gas.

Opening then the steam-cock, the liquid is heated by means of the double bottom, so as to produce ebullition, which is kept up for several minutes, in order to drive off the excess of carbonic acid, and complete the precipitation of the carbonate of lime.

The liquor is then poured upon a filter of granular bone-black, without waiting for the subsidence of the carbonate of lime, for this crystalline carbonate causes no trouble in the filtration.

It is evident that the soda and potash remain dissolved as carbonates; the alkalinity of which reacts upon the nitrogenous and other organic substances, and produces the unfavorable effects mentioned above. M. Rousseau has got rid of this cause of alteration almost wholly, by the addition of ammonia towards the end of the insufflation of carbonic acid. Carbonate of ammonia is formed, which, being immediately decomposed by the organic calcareous salts, allows the ammonia to escape and carbonate of lime to be formed; the organic acids, uniting with the soda and potash, destroy nearly all alkalinity.

The succeeding operations, namely, evaporation, second filtration through bone black, and concentration, are performed as ordinarily; only they are more prompt and easy; for the syrups, less viscid, better freed of calcareous compounds, and less colored, no longer froth in boiling, evaporate more rapidly and at a lower temperature, cause no incrustations in the boilers, and require scarcely two-thirds of the quantity of bone black usually employed.

The successive crystallizations of second, third, fourth and fifth products are less embarrassed, and extend to syrups which heretofore have passed to the molasses, yielding sugar easy to drain, and purify by liquoring in rotary apparatus.

In view of these facts, may we not conclude that the new process will give more sugar and be more economical than the processes followed before? This seems very probable, provided that care be taken to separate the larger quantity of sugar united with the feculencies; for an equal volume of syrup will give more abundant crystals; less animal charcoal will be consumed; the evaporating apparatus will work better, and require less cleaning; and the slight expense for carbonic acid (15 centimes per hectolitre of juice) and the excess of lime (5 centimes nearly) will be very largely compensated by the diminution of other expenses.

Upon this point, the names of the skillful manufacturers who, after having verified the facts which we have ourselves witnessed at the establishment of M. Leguime, have adopted this method, furnish the best guarantee of a correct appreciation.

We will mention, first, MM. Bernard freres, of Santes, and M. Telloy, of Courrieres (Nord). The example which they set last year has been followed by M. Hebert and MM. Rhem freres, of La

Basse Yute (Moselle); by M. Clovis Godin, of Cuincy (Nord), and M. Alexandre Perier, of Flavy (Aine). Several proprietors of large sugar estates abroad have procured the apparatus of MM. Cail and Cheilus for the application of the method of M. Rousseau. They are, particularly: in Russia, Count Bobrinsky and Mr. Potoki; and in the vicinity of Warsaw, Mr. Raut. Several directors of colonial sugar estates have become convinced that this apparatus is applicable with advantage for their purposes. MM. Zuluetta, of Havana, and Robin, of the Union, are engaged in its introduction upon their estates; and we shall soon know what to think about the application of the method to the juice of the cane, and under circumstances very different from those which exist in France.

Henceforth, we believe, it may be said, that by introducing into our sugar industry a new method, of which we have just set forth the fortunate results, M. Rousseau has contributed to the progress thereof, and rendered a service worthy of fixing the attention of the Academy and of its approbation.

The conclusions of this report were adopted.

ART. III.—SUPPOSITITIOUS REVIEWS.*

TIERRA DE GUERRA.

(Concluded.)

It was in a large, gloomy apartment, or more properly cavern, that I lay, with my face turned towards an irregular opening in the wall, through which day-light entered. I was weak from want of food, and tormented with thirst, and not a little perplexed to account for the fact that I was stretched upon a coarse mat, without power to stand erect: I presently recalled the late events, however, and concluded from my reduction in flesh and strength, that a greater interval had elapsed than a single day, as I had at first imagined.

The cleft, which served both for door and window, did not open immediately upon the outer air, but cut off, by an elbow, all view of sky or country; and with a longing to look upon these, I had crawled half way to the gap, when a shrunken little woman made her appearance, and after bestowing upon me a score of linked curses, called to her assistance a second hag, not less wrinkled and hideous, and dragged me back to my mat by the hair, without the slightest ceremony. This was rather rough treatment for an invalid, but I forgave it when, in answer to my repeated cry of '*atl!*' (water,) one of them brought a great gourd, from which I drank new life into my system; a hand-

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* From this period to that of the author's escape and the close of the book, the interest of the narrative is well enough sustained to be worth quoting entire. It will be remembered, we left Señor Eustace insensible in his old prison, or rather cage; his quarters were changed for the worse meanwhile.

ful of roasted maize left me, also helped to diminish my feebleness, and I found inclination to look about more curiously.

There was nothing to remark but the bare rock walls of a natural cavern. roughly shorn of the more prominent projections, the less irregular roof, and the floor, also of rock, strewed with mats similar to the one I occupied. I made another effort to reach the mouth of the dungeon-like room in the course of the morning, and this time succeeded, but gained little by the exertion, as the whole prospect consisted in a barren slope sprinkled with loose stones, extending to a ravine below, in which grew about a dozen stunted trees, and the steep side of the unshaded sierra opposite, the foot of which had been hewn down to serve as a wall full forty feet in perpendicular height. It was something, nevertheless, to breathe pure air; but this privilege was not long accorded me, for a man passing the foot of the hill and catching sight of my person, called out, as I supposed, to the crones to carry me back; and not being partial to their method of accomplishing that result, I retreated before they arrived.

At dusk there was a commotion without, followed by the entrance of a numerous company of men, whose faces it was too dark to distinguish, but whom I found to be Tepecohuatlans by the few words interchanged while taking possession of their separate mats. I endeavored to find out from my left neighbor, the wall being next me on the right, a man of herculean frame, where I was and who these men were, but he lay with his face turned away, and would make no reply.

By dawn they were all marched forth, and again at twilight returned, and this was the daily practice. Meantime my strong constitution hourly got the better of the effects of the late illness, in spite of my being compelled to breathe only the unwholesome atmosphere of the dungeon, a guard now keeping watch at the gap, and preventing even an approach to the exterior. It was nearly a week after my return to consciousness, that one night I was roused by a cautious shake and a few words of Spanish whispered close to my ear. I was instantly wide awake, scarce crediting the reality; in an equally low tone demanded who spoke, for the darkness was so intense that nothing whatever could be distinguished. I quickly learned it was my neighbor of the gigantic proportions, who explained that he had hitherto concealed his identity for fear of retarding my recovery. The rest of our room-mates were convicts condemned to working the mines, and he himself was no better off; his story, which he afterwards related in full, can be told here in a few words. He was a Spaniard, and by trade a blacksmith, but having imbibed an irresistible fondness for wandering over the world, came to Central America, and finally strayed without any definite object into the midst of some one of the Candoné tribes, by whom he was captured and brought to Tepetlan.

After a short imprisonment, he was one day taken to the platform of a teocalli, a spear and shield given him, and immediately set upon by six warriors equally armed, in full view of an immense concourse of people. In Spain, his restless disposition had led him into frequent

tumults, in which a stout staff was the most usual weapon when daggers were not drawn, and using his spear now as such, and thrusting where an opportunity offered, he succeeded in killing or maiming all his antagonists, and was carried back to prison with only a few trifling wounds; thence he had been conveyed to work the mines, which last he thought little better than being murdered outright, although he did not like the idea of being eaten afterwards. His name was Miguel Boso.

It appeared that on the return as usual of the miners, about three weeks previous, he found me lying next to him, delirious, and raving in Spanish and some unknown language; the former sounded like music in his ears, and he at once proclaimed himself my protector, and by the influence his strength and daring gave him over the others, I was saved from being stripped, as I would otherwise have been, and my remnants of civilized clothing appropriated. I learned, also, that in a few days I would probably be ordered out to work; but that occurred sooner than we anticipated, for the very next morning after our first conversation, a shirt of coarse matting was thrown to me, with a few rough words which Miguel translated into a command to follow the rest. This I did, and coming into the light, found the convicts, sixty or more in number, equipped as myself, except that the greater part seemed to possess no other garment; my new friend wore only in addition to the matting a pair of tattered drawers or hose. A strong guard, armed with spears and bows, was in attendance, and marched us in ranks three deep down the declivity and along the valley: the soldiers appearing to be of an inferior order to those I had hitherto seen, their chiefs being merely *coamatlis;* similar detachments were conducting gangs of laborers from various quarters as we advanced, the mouths of the caves from which they issued resembling black holes in the slope of the hills. These hills, a ridge of which ran on either hand, occasionally approaching so near as to contract the intermediate valley into a mere chasm, were throughout cut down, as I have stated; the sierra side facing our cavern being of solid rock, and the crevices carefully filled, presented an obstacle to escape utterly insurmountable. Before we reached the end of our march, too, we came within sight of an artificial wall of equal height raised across a narrow portion of the glen, and furnished with folding gates of slabs of rock turning on pivots, and which were opened and closed only by the effort of twenty or more men: this was the only outlet, and a strong body of the soldiers remained day and night in its vicinity. My heart fell as I noticed these indications of the care taken to frustrate attempts at escape, and I wished with all my soul that death had delivered me from such hopeless slavery.

Not far from the stone gate we turned into a cleft in the mountain, which conducted by steep and rough steps into the mine, my future scene of labor; but first each man received from a hut near at hand a hammer and cold chisel, or an implement resembling the pointed half of an ordinary pickaxe, and with these tools, and accompanied by a portion of our escort who acted as overseers and brought up the

rear, we filed down into the dismal cavity. I was surprised at the number and vigilance of the guards in a valley so well enclosed, but afterwards learned that twice before the miners had entered into a conspiracy, sallied simultaneously from their lairs, and very nearly succeeded in defeating the entire corps of warriors: since the last attempt they had been divided into companies of fifty or sixty each, closely watched while at work, and made to sleep in natural or artificial caverns having but a single outlet, at which two guards remained throughout the night, a number of others sleeping within reach of their call. I saw the long, low structure which had formerly served as a dormitory for the convicts; and also, on our return in the afternoon, what I had not noticed in the faint light of dawn, a rugged stone building in the immediate neighborhood of each of the caves, constituting the quarters of the detachments referred to.

Our mine was very extensive, and branched into galleries following the course of the different veins. One portion of our company with the pickaxes were employed in cutting out and around huge masses, which, when loosened, were broken into convenient pieces by those with hammers, and the pieces carried up in sacks of matting by gangs, and delivered to others still, who beat the ore to powder, washed it repeatedly, and finally transferred the product to smelterers, whose furnaces, half-filled with charcoal, extracted a metal containing a large proportion of tin. These particulars, however, I gathered chiefly from Miguel, who had at one time labored with the smelterers, as during the period of my servitude I was employed in mining alone.

We were allowed but a single meal a day, a few handfuls of parched maize to be eaten in the mine, and for drink, the water oozing through the crevices in some spots; and from first to last of my experience, there was no variation in the daily routine of hard labor and scanty fare, except that caused by new acts of violence and oppression. The unwholesome atmosphere breathed day and night, joined to the nature of the food given us, caused unceasing mortality, as no attention was paid to the most desperate cases of illness; and as all who were able to rise, were compelled to go to the galleries or furnaces, it more than once occurred that a poor wretch fell dead, or dying, hammer in hand, or that one of our fellows was found in the morning stiff upon his mat. Occasionally, too, a miner, from sullenness or inability, failing to perform his task, or possibly merely to gratify the malice of one of our masters, would be taken out and beaten so unmercifully with slender metal rods, as seldom to survive an hour. On the event of each of these latter deaths, a suspicious feast of baked meat was served out, on our return to the cavern at nightfall, which the Tepecohuatlans ate voraciously: the first time it was brought, I received a fragment with the eagerness of a half-starved man, when Miguel caught my arm and uttered a few syllables, which turned my stomach, and caused me to fling the unnatural food as far as sudden horror and disgust could give me strength to cast it. Nothing stimulated my resolution to endure and live on, after

this occurrence, so much as the dread of affording a banquet to the cannibals around.

In our nightly talks, I repeatedly urged Miguel to join me in an attempt to escape, however desperate, rather than suffer as we daily did; but to all such questions he refused to answer, listening in silence to my arguments, and then turning the whispered conversation to other matters. At length despairing of convincing him, and fearful that the inroads which I could not but observe the unhealthy exposure hourly endured was making upon my imperfectly established health, would in the end incapacitate me for all such efforts, I firmly asserted my determination to procrastinate no longer, but the very next night to regain my liberty or lose my life. Upon hearing this, to my great surprise, Miguel at the instant threw off all his former apathy, clutched my hand, and swore he had waited and concealed his true inclination, only until he should discover whether I was at heart resolved to act as well as plot, since he knew but one way of possible escape, and no little resolution was required to attempt even that.

It seemed, two years before, while hewing out the last block of ore from a vein, the extremity of which had been reached, his pick-axe made an orifice through which a ray of daylight shone in, and taking advantage of his partial concealment from the other miners and overseers by a projection, he had cut a hole large enough to allow a view of a plain below dotted with houses and trees, when he was called to, and compelled to proceed to another shaft, but not until he had succeeded in pulling down a heap of rubbish over the cavity, the better to conceal it from chance observation.

During the entire space of the two succeeding years, his thoughts had been employed in little else than the endeavor to fall upon some feasible plan by means of which to reach the site of his discovery, and enlarge the crevice sufficiently to allow of escape; for the workmen had never since approached that section of the mine—the subjacent vein of metal being exhausted, and to elude the vigilance of the *otahls* of the mines, was a thing impracticable.

I expressed some wonder that he had not made the trial by night, and that, he said, was precisely what he now desired to do; but single-handed as he had hitherto been, for the convicts were too treacherous to be trusted even where their own interests were involved, to have endeavored to master a couple of guards, ever wide awake, and with a strong reserve within call, would have ensured failure to himself, and a feast to *los caribes baxos* (the man-eating vagabonds): he did not fear death merely, but could not tolerate the idea of being digested piecemeal by a pack of savages!

His plan now was, to steal upon the *otahls* unaware, by using extreme caution, simultaneously seizing each by the throat, and either strangling or gagging them, (*as might be most convenient:*) then hasten to the mine, cut a passage through, and once more find ourselves at liberty.

I entered with my whole heart into his scheme, which appeared the more plausible, as, when resolved to issue forth on the expedition

alone rather than not at all, I had conceived no other than the desperate hope of clambering up the forty feet of bare wall at a place I had noticed in passing, overhung half-way down with vines from a sort of table-land above. I was at a loss, however, to conceive in what manner we would find it practicable to enlarge the opening first made, until Miguel informed me he had managed to secrete in another gallery, a pickaxe, dropped by one of our company who had died from blows received, and with it we could work in turn.

All things being thus arranged, we agreed to delay the trial for a tempestuous night, that the noise of a struggle at the mouth of the dungeon, if any occurred, might be effectually drowned: and before the lapse of another week, the opportunity offered.

The rain fell heavily, and taking advantage of a flash of lightning which made the true direction of the outlet visible, we extricated ourselves from a labyrinth of mats and sleeping occupants, through which we had been groping, and felt our way noiselessly to the door. Here we waited, crouched close until another glare of light showed, as we were confident would be the case, the two *otahls* taking refuge from the storm in the mouth of the passage.

We lost no time in creeping within spring, and the moon affording a faint light through the clouds, but sufficient to distinguish the outlines of their seated figures, in another moment our fingers were fastened upon the throat of each, and a fierce struggle followed. The fellow upon whom I had pounced was a burly, muscular savage, but he had to do with a desperate man, and although dashed violently upon the ground by his efforts to tear loose, I hung on with fingers of iron, and concentrated every particle of my determination and strength in the death-grip: fortunately, he either had not, or failed to use a knife, and while rolling on the floor there was no time to shorten his spear for a thrust. Still his resistance was so strong, that I was much relieved when Miguel, having effectually quieted his antagonist, came to my assistance, and gagged and tied mine before I released his windpipe: he wished to thrust a spear into his heart, as he had done to the other, but that I would not allow, since, to a helpless man, it would have been sheer murder.

We now saw the great advantage afforded by the uproar of the elements, as but for that, the noise of the grapple would have called the neighboring force upon us; and gathering up the weapons of our late guards, we crawled out on hands and knees, and keeping a good look-out for stragglers who might chance to be abroad, for it was now not far from daylight, and the tempest fast abating, began to descend, turning at first shortly to the right to avoid as far as possible the vicinity of the soldiers' quarters. As soon as the dwarf bushes at the bottom of the gorge were gained, we rose to our feet and walked rapidly in the direction of the mine in which we commonly worked; every thing thus far had gone well, but there was no time to lose, for before we reached the latter place the storm had entirely passed over, and the moon shone out more brightly than was agreeable. However, we encountered no one until within sight of the mouth, when a man appeared so suddenly in front that there was no time to con-

ceal ourselves; accordingly we walked quietly on, and would have parted with the usual mute salutation, had he not halted, and eyeing us narrowly, asked in Tepecohuatlan, "when the sun would rise?" a question apparently unmeaning enough where they reckon time by the sun's progress, but in the mouth of the common people, full of suspicious significance.

**Itz teotl!*—returned Miguel readily, pointing to the eastern horizon as if understanding the question literally, and with a laugh moved on.

The other laughed also at the dull jest, and made no opposition to our advancing; but scarcely were our backs turned, when he quickened his pace and presently broke into a run. He had reckoned without his host, however: for Miguel, drawing the *otahl's* bow from under his shirt, let fly an arrow which must have whizzed close to his ear, to judge by the nimbleness with which he dodged; a second was more to the purpose, and he fell and rolled over in a manner so abandoned, that there was no necessity to turn back to see if he were dead or not.

We hastened into the chasm, and groping down the two first descents, every step of which was familiar, by twirling one of the spears rapidly between the palms in turn, we managed to ignite the extremity socketed in a bit of dry wood; there was no difficulty in finding the remains of several torches, and with the important aid of light to our progress, we quickly reached the gallery where the gap was to be made, the pick being first recovered after some search, from the crevice in which my comrade had hidden it. The extremity was less easily arrived at, as a quantity of rubbish, accumulated either by accident or design, choked the shallow passage; we removed enough to allow us to climb over the remainder, and clearing away that pulled down two years before by the Spaniard, discovered the hole and fell to work to enlarge it. The rock was not very hard, and hewing alternately we made rapid progress, as there was great need to do, day having dawned, and our absence, probably, already detected. At length the cavity appeared of sufficient size to allow an exit; but on attempting it, the shoulders of Miguel proved too broad, although I found no hindrance myself in crawling through. The worst of it now was, that, cutting away the projection which prevented his passage, would bring down, it seemed not unlikely, a mass of overhanging rock, and so block up the hollow more completely than at first; but after examining the exterior, I found the block to be of even greater size than appeared from within, but so well poised that I thought I could easily support it by using the spear shafts as levers, while the blacksmith with a few blows removed the natural prop from one corner and effected his egress, an advantage also lying in the fact that we would then have it in our power to destroy all direct clue to our manner of attaining that end.

On making trial, I found it quite practicable; and after the commu-

* A common mode of telling the time of any occurrence among the Aztec nations; designating the place in the heavens the sun will be at, with the words 'itz teotl' (God will be there.) Here it can be rendered 'at sunrise.'

nication of this agreeable intelligence, Miguel had already hewn nearly through the support, when a sudden burst of shouts, cries, and clash of weapons within, announced a disaster. With a burning heart I listened, eager to return to the aid of my companion, yet not daring to release my hold, as unfortunately so much had been cut from beneath, that the weight upon the spears was scarce endurable, and a momentary withdrawal of resistance would have permanently closed the passage. I looked searchingly and hurriedly around my feet for some object within arm's length which might be used as a temporary prop, shouting meantime to Miguel in Spanish to hold out until I could reach him; but these latter events transpiring with the swiftness of thought, while I was still eagerly endeavoring to accomplish my purpose, a cessation of the clamor in the shaft indicated that all was over, and at the instant, with a jeering laugh, a human head was flung through the gap, and rolled down the hill like a ball.

I was horror-struck, but there was no time to indulge such feeling, for I could distinguish that a number of the Tepecohuatlans were forcing their way through: I waited only until the foremost had cleared half his body, when suddenly dropping the levers, the huge rock toppled over, and settled in the cleft with a dull *crush*, and except a smothered yell of rage from the interior, no sign of my enemies remained—the leaders of whom lay entirely buried beneath the mass. I could scarcely realize that the accursed valley was behind, and my liberty once more regained;—the fact was too new and strange. I sat down where I had stood, and looking around in the still dim light, could discern I was in a small ravine, the foot of which, a few yards below, was shut in by bushes, and the sides by rocky walls of no great height. As I breathed the fresh, cool air, I recalled vividly the last morning of absolute freedom, when, seated in the barranca near Chaxul, we awaited the breaking of day. The ill-starred companion with whom I had entered Tepetlan, had been savagely slaughtered before my eyes, and my escape was even now purchased with the blood of a second. I took up the clotted head, closed the lids over the staring balls, and making a hollow as well as I could among the loose stones, buried this last horrible memento of dangers passed.

Poor Miguel Boso—would that I might have given as Christian a sepulchre to thy miserable body!

Banishing every painful thought, I turned my face toward the plain, descended the little glen, and forcing a way through the thickets, stood upon the brow of a grassy slope, beyond which were fields of young maize, groves of tropical trees, and clusters of pretty, white houses; blue curls of thin smoke were rising here and there, swayed gently to and fro by a light breeze; the dew lay fresh and bright on the leaves of plants, and weighed down the petals of innumerable wild-flowers; on every side the birds sang out from the branches of trees below, or chirped as they hopped through the grass, and over a gray range of sierra to the east a rosy flush preceded the sun in a cloudless sky. With a body worn down with toil and hardships,

and eyes so long accustomed to scenes of bloodshed and violence, shut in by impassable walls of swarthy granite, I could not satisfy myself with gazing and breathing in the sense of freedom. The rest and peace sank into my very soul, and yielding to a resistless impulse, I knelt down, and from the depths of my heart thanked God for life and deliverance.

ART. IV.—THE SOUTH AND HER REMEDIES.

UNDER the rule laid down in our January No., we insert the following from the pen of a distinguished southern writer and political economist. Having given the other side a fair hearing, we were bound, if for no other reason, to hear this. We consider *slavery*, and all the questions that grow out of it, legitimate to the purposes of a magazine which claims to be essentially *southern*, and that every effort to confound these questions with mere *politics* is a dangerous innovation. [EDITOR.]

"Cannot we of the South take measures to find what is the path of conduct that the common sense of the whole country would point to, as the one the wants of the case demanded should be pursued? Once found, there is little difficulty or danger in following it. The united peaceful course of a great people, moving firmly to the attainment of a great national object, would carry with it a degree of moral force, far exceeding in influence and effect all that could be expected from a tumultuous outbreak of the passions. Its existence would be the certain evidence of the success that must attend it."—*De Bow's Review for January*, 1851.

THE *common sense* of a drowning man teaches him to seize at the plank or spar which the waves may float in his way; *instinct* teaches him to grasp at straws! But *we*,—common sense forgotten,—dead to instinct,—have sat folding our arms in almost idiotic apathy, and now, almost in the struggles of death, with every spasmodic effort of expiring life, instead of grasping at our only chance for safety, spend our last breath in hosannahs for the "glorious Union" which engulfs us. Would to *God* that the South could unite to find that path of conduct which common sense dictates! Would to *God* that the danger which threatens the very existence of the southern portion of this once great confederacy, could rouse us from our lethargy to look upon the precipice which yawns at our feet—this *once* great confederacy, I say, for a confederacy, so far as the South is concerned, it is no longer. What are *we?*—Not yet, thank God! the trampled Helots of a domineering and tyrannic mob;—but will the advocates of submission tell us how long it shall be before we *may*—aye, *must* meet that destiny? How long does the governmental system of calculation allow for the solving of these problems, viz.: What is the most direct line from freedom to slavery? and what the shortest time in which an acting, thinking people may be brow-beat, coaxed, cheated and bribed into an utter renunciation of every right—into an abject self-annihilation? The poor lamb which extends its neck to the slaughter-knife, and "licks the hand just raised to shed its blood," moves not more certainly to meet its destiny, than we,

when, warned as we have been, threatened as we have been, menaced as we are, we calmly talk of the objections made to our institutions, and the propriety of adopting some "scheme of policy, the effect of which would be to disarm objections," such scheme having its "origin in a knowledge of the existence of these objections," and its end being "to disarm them." *Some scheme of policy!* Great *God!* and what? Have we not had schemes of policy enough, beginning with the Missouri compromise, and ending with the recent bill of abominations at which the South stands aghast, scarcely yet believing that the thing is done, and that the disgrace is saddled upon her? Schemes of policy, in which justice is forgotten, the constitution thrown aside like a soiled parchment, the *prejudices* of the North thrown in the scale against the *rights* of the South, and the *tender consciences* of our northern brethren weighed against our *very life-blood*, have, like the sword of Brennus in the scale, proved weighty enough to cast the beam against us. Scheme of policy! There are those who cry "peace, peace, when there is no peace." There is but one scheme of policy for us, and that is to shut our ears to suggestions which would lull us to quiet even while the vampire is sucking out our life-blood.

The writer of an article in the January number of this Review, the title of which we have adopted, as well as our opening sentence, finds no other remedy for our condition than this indefinite "scheme of policy," which is to truckle and huckster to northern aggression, until—what?—until, says he, "the public opinion of the world" may, by thus "consulting its views, and so acting as to avoid a shock to its sense of right, be *enlightened* and *modified*." Truth is mighty and must prevail. No doubt in time the public opinion of the world may be enlightened and modified; but in the mean time,

> "Through what variety of untried being,
> Through what new scenes and changes must we pass!"

The fate of Jamaica is an item in the world's history of some little moment to us, and that of St. Domingo a not uninteresting episode, at least so far as *we* are concerned. Are these no warnings to us? History, remarks the writer whom we are noticing, "History is said to be philosophy teaching by example. Cannot men now learn the philosophy from the example, without furnishing another example from their own history?" *God* in his mercy grant that we may! May such degradation as the one, such a tragedy as the other, never blot the pages of our annals. But that it may not, the strong arm, the strong head, and the strong heart, must combine their energies against the oppressor.

Do we ask if we have the right to resist? Let the answer come from the heart of every true man—we do not say *Southern man*, but of every *true man*—every man who, unbiased by fanaticism, uninfluenced by government patronage, who, neither holding place nor seeking place, neither bribing nor bribed, dares boldly to speak the natural impulse of a manly heart. We will not quote from the eloquent appeal of the venerable Cheves, as, roused from a long-sought

retirement, he wakes at the sound of danger, and, like the old eagle startled from his nest, utters a warning cry, which, echoing from cliff to cliff, rings afar its startling note. We will not recall the opinions or a Tucker, a McDonald, a Gordon, nor the host of southern men, who, true-hearted, pure and loyal, could neither speak nor act otherwise. Let us rather hearken to the voice of one, who, while not of us, has yet not sufficiently blinded his reason to join the hue and cry of northern abolition and free-soilism; one who, though born in New-England, yet retains enough of the pure spirit of his patriot fathers to look justice in the face and honestly speak her dictates, though the answering cry should be, "stone him, stone him!"

We quote from the speech of the Hon. Caleb Cushing, delivered in Newburyport, July 4th, 1850.—"We of the North [he remarks] are strong in numbers, in votes, in physical force:—is it unionism to violate the letter and spirit of the Constitution, and thus to place the South in the alternative of the dishonor to be incurred by passive submission to the unjust act of a majority, or to imputed factiousness by resistance to it? No, that is disunionism, as this day, if rightly read, may serve to admonish us. For what is the Declaration of Independence? We speak of it as the commencement of our nationality. How? Was it not also a solemn act of disunion, the declaration of an oppressed minority,—the colonies,—that they would no longer continue united with an oppressive majority, consisting of the rest of the British Empire? Think you that no dear bonds of common country, of religious and political association, were sundered by the Declaration of Independence? Ay, many; for England still bore, even on the lips of our forefathers, the affectionate appellation of *home*. But ten years of actual or intended unconstitutional aggression on their rights,—ten years of depreciation and denunciation of their character and conduct,—ten years of legislative warfare on their interests, served to obliterate from the minds of the minority all impressions of common nationality with the majority, and produced that Declaration of Independence. And although England set a price on the heads of John Hancock and Thomas Cushing as traitors, yet they well might, and they did retort, that the aggressor, and not the aggrieved,—that the violator of the public compact, not the victim of the violation,—that the oppressive majority, not the oppressed minority,—was responsible for the dissolution of the union between the British colonies and the British metropolis."

And who would be responsible for disunion *now?* As in England the voice of a Pitt and a Barre dared to speak the exculpation and defence of the slandered and oppressed colonies, which struggled for existence against her grinding oppressions, so even now, in New-England, can some be found to remonstrate against the "meddlesome madness" of her procedures, and the "fanatical aggression and fanatical hatred" which characterize her course towards the South. If our fathers had cause for disunion with England, tenfold now are the right and the duty which point us to a similar course. In the words of the Hon. A. G. Brown, of Mississippi, "There are things more terrible than disunion, and one of these is tame submis-

sion to outrageous wrong. If it has really come to this, that the Southern States dare not assert and maintain their equal position in the Union, for fear of dissolving the Union, then I am free to say, that the Union ought to be dissolved. If the noble edifice erected by our fathers has become so rickety, worm-eaten and decayed, that it is in danger of falling every time the Southern States assemble to ask for justice,* then the sooner it is pulled down the better."

The same gentleman, speaking of the divers votes taken for abolishing slavery in the District of Columbia, continues:—"Look to these things. Look to the Fugitive Slave law in Massachusetts, Ohio, and elsewhere. Look to the late extraordinary triumph of Mr. Seward, in New-York. Look to the success of the free-soilers in the late elections. Listen to the notes of preparation everywhere in the Northern States, and tell me if men do not wilfully deceive you when they say that the slavery agitation is over? I tell you, fellow-citizens, it is not over. It never will be over, so long as you continue to recede before the pressure of northern power. You cannot secure your rights, you cannot save the Union or the Constitution, by following the timid counsels of the submissionists. Pursue these counsels, and they will lead to a sacrifice of all we hold dear,—of life, liberty, property, and the Union itself. By submission you may secure, not a union, but a *connection* with the North. It will be such a connection as exists between Ireland and England, Poland and Russia, Hungary and Austria. It will not,—it cannot be the Union of our fathers,—it cannot be a union of equals.

"Well! and what next? 'Some scheme of policy,' forsooth! Some Convention of the *states generally*, where the northern majority may, as usual, crush us, as it were, between a thumb and finger! Some 'medium!' Some platform! Some *juste milieu!* Heaven protect us when such are the voices of southern men!"

> "Oh! they come o'er my memory
> As doth the raven o'er th' infected house,
> Boding to all."

"These truths we speak may lack some gentleness;" but in these times,

> "When Liberty plucks Justice by the nose,"

when our opponents, regulating their course and consciences by "the higher law," scoff at constitutions, trample on our rights, and seem to think the whole,

> "Admirable pleasures and very honest knaveries,"

what can we do, but strike with such strength as *God* has given us, and pray that Heaven protect the right! *Dieu et mon droit.*

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* Oliver Twist asking for more! Behold the horror, dismay, and conscientious indignation of all worthy superintendents and assistants.

V.—INDIA AND THE HINDOOS.*

Of the three peninsulas which terminate the continent of Asia, India is by far the most considerable. With a lofty range of mountains, rising 27,000 feet above the level of the sea,—with water-falls that "quadruple the depth of the cataract of Niagara"—with a population which can only be computed by drops of water in the ocean, or the sand on the sea-shore—with a literature that equals, if it does not surpass, the most admired productions of Greece and Rome—with a system of religion whose principles are as monstrous as its origin is remote—with the classic Ganges and the "Holy City of Benares," around which cluster associations as sacred to the Hindoos as the Jordan, or the Pool of Siloam, or Jerusalem to the Hebrew, or the Christian;—in whatever aspect we view this great country, its grandeur and beauty cannot fail to arrest the attention and excite the interest of every cultivated mind.

Indeed the subject is so vast, that huge folios might be written, instead of a brief sketch, which is all that can be reasonably expected in the pages of a Review. In order to do anything like justice, we must divide it into several different departments.

1.—THE EARLY HISTORY OF INDIA.

In nothing are we so apt to be disappointed as in attempting to ascertain the early history of a country. As a matter of course, no sensible man will place absolute belief in mere hearsay or traditional accounts. Beyond written documentary evidence, (and not always in this,) he will look with natural and just suspicion, inasmuch as his own experience and observation will convince him that whatever does not rest upon fact, or the evidence of the senses, will possess more or less of poetry and fiction. As long as there seems to be some probability in their legends, he will be disposed to lean with a favorable disposition towards them; as for example, when we are informed that Romulus and Remus were suckled by a she-wolf, the mind will give some assent to this assertion, because we know that it is not improbable, or at least not impossible, for human life to be sustained by the milk of a wild animal! But how can we censure the judgment of one who bases his incredulity on the greater probability of its being *false*, on the ground of the peculiar propensity of the wolf to devour, instead of affording nourishment to helpless innocence? Is it to be supposed that the wolf has a stronger instinctive predilection for the flavor of a *lamb* than that of a *baby?* We do not know—but we would not be disposed to place much confidence in the affection of a mother who would consign her offspring to the tender

* India and the Hindoos; being a popular view of the Geography, History, Government, Manners, Customs, Literature and Religion of that ancient people; with an account of Christian Missions among them. By F. De Ward, late Missionary at Madras, and Member of the "American Oriental Society." Baker & Scribner, New-York. 1850.

mercies of an animal with such suspicious-looking grinders. This historical statement, then, which is mentioned by all the Roman historians, is not to be implicitly believed, because the probability of its being true is not so great as its improbability. It is therefore only an historical assertion, and not an historical *fact*, which we take to be a very different thing. And this leads us to say a word or two on the glorious uncertainty of *historical record.*

We would not be understood to mean that what is recorded in books and MSS., and placed within the archives of a nation, does not deserve more consideration than a fabulous or traditionary legend —but we think it must be evident to all, that no great degree of confidence should necessarily attach to these documents—considered by themselves—for it is as easy to write or print a falsehood as to speak it. But a distinction must be made between *sacred and profane* records. If we are asked, why we believe that the walls of Jericho fell down at the blowing of a ram's-horn, as stated in the Bible? because we believe it to be an *inspired volume*, and whatever it contains must necessarily be true, and its statements are to be considered *historical facts.* Our belief in its authenticity is a substitute for the want of the evidence of our own senses, and is the best and only argument which the nature of the case will admit of. But if we are told by an Indian historian that the Indian Empire was founded long before the creation of the world—that they are the descendants of the sun and moon—that "the God Rama being in pursuit of his enemy Ravenna, who had forcibly carried off the Divine Goddess Sita, sped through the vaulted heavens, having his sword drawn, ready to deal the death-blow of revenge, and in forgetfulness of his direful wrath, by an incautious wave of his mighty weapon, he struck the moon with the point thereof, and severed from that beautiful orb a chain of verdant mountains, which immediately fell to the earth,—and in proof of his statement, will point out the portion of the moon from which the mountains fell." Who but "moon-struck" people are expected to give the slightest credit to these assertions? They savor so much of the extravagance of a poetical imagination, and are so utterly at variance with reason or probability, that we do not hesitate to pronounce it entirely false. With these remarks, which naturally suggest themselves to the mind of every one who reads the history of all Eastern nations, we will proceed with our subject.

The first work which contains any authentic history of the Hindoos are the *Vedas*, which were written about the time of David, King of Israel, and the "Institutes of Menu," which inform us that there were originally two great families, distinguished as the *Sun* and *Moon*, who were constantly struggling for the mastery. Other accounts inform us that there were ten kingdoms in India speaking different languages, five of which occupied the northern and five the southern districts. But in this they all agree, that neither the present natives of India, nor their immediate ancestors, were the aborigines of the country. Of all the Orientalists of modern times, the one who is entitled to most respect is unquestionably Sir William Jones. With a love

of learning which embraced the whole circle of literature, and which was only surpassed by his ardent devotion to truth, this truly great and virtuous man expended many of the most valuable years of his life in the study of Indian literature. From the advantages of his position, as the first judicial functionary in Bengal, he was enabled to unlock the treasure-houses of information which had hitherto been closed against all classes of outside barbarians; and from the modesty and cautious temper which he displayed in his investigations, we may confidently rely upon the veracity of his statements. In his opinion, the true date of Indian history begins about three or four centuries before the Christian era—all before this period being more or less involved in doubt and mystery. Since his untimely death, which occurred while engaged in the arduous duties of his profession, towards the close of the last century, many distinguished Orientalists, such as Ward, Robertson and Milford, have added their contributions from this vast field. Their writings contain much valuable information; but according to their own confession, they are unable to throw any light upon the early history of the country—deeming that to be entirely impossible, unless, indeed, the researches which are now in progress for the interpretation of Egyptian hieroglyphics can effect that object.

The learned historian, Diodorus, states that *Semiramis* fitted out an expedition for the purpose of invading this far-famed country, and after spending several years in preparing to carry on this gigantic enterprise, she was opposed by the Hindoo general with an army which met her on the eastern side of the Indus, and caused such terrible havoc and confusion in the ranks of the enemy, that they were compelled to sound a retreat to the bridge of boats, in which they had but recently crossed in all the pomp and pride and circumstance of glorious war.

How, indeed, could an army of half a million of men and cavalry, though their necks were clothed with thunder and laughed at the shaking of spears, oppose a regiment of those alligator-hided monsters, which tore up huge trees with their trunks, and turned them into implements of destruction? After attempting in vain to cheer up the broken spirits of her vanquished army, she placed herself at their head with that heroic, though insane valor, which distinguished the warriors of antiquity, and received a mortal wound, and sank to rise no more.

The next expedition of which history makes mention, was that of Darius, the Persian monarch, who, in the fifth century before the Christian era, undertook to explore the country, and proceeded so far in subjugating the provinces of Mooltan and Lahore, as to be able to exact large tributes in gold and other valuble commodities. His dominion, however, was of short duration, and the Indian Empire was again restored to its original independence. But the most memorable and disastrous of all the expeditions which were carried on against India, was that of Alexander the Great. After having reduced the Persian Empire in subjection to his despotic will, he crossed the Indus with a view of compelling the inhabitants of that country to pay him the

tribute which had previously been claimed by Darius. In commencing his march towards the Ganges he was met by the Hindoo general, Porus, with an army of the natives, who turned the tide of war against him—which, together with a mutiny among his soldiers, brought about a total abortion of his long-cherished schemes. In returning to his own capital, he performed the extraordinary feat of sailing down the Indus, and enjoying the glorious prospect of the Arabian Sea. For once in his career of conquest he met with an ignominious defeat, and he could boast with Imperial Cæsar, that "to go, to see, and to conquer," was with him one and the same thing—he who had made himself master of the world shed bitter tears that there were no more worlds for him to conquer, and died in a drunken brawl!

From the time of Alexander to that of the Mahommedan rule, India was in the enjoyment of comparative peace and repose, which render her annals dull and uninteresting. Next succeeded the Mogul dynasty in the person of Baber, surnamed "The Tiger," about the year 1525, A.D., and was followed by Akber Khan, of whose wise and virtuous government, a native historian says in the figurative language of the East: "*That his memory still floats upon the tears of all India.*"

For want of space, we must conclude our remarks upon this department of our subject, by observing, that the reign of all their rulers was distinguished for nothing more worthy of commemoration, than a diabolical ambition in every succeeding ruler to surpass his predecessor in creating the most awful massacres of which history makes any mention. Tamerlane, surnamed the "Destroyer," was said to have massacred a hundred thousand natives in a single hour. Timur, "the fire-brand of the universe," Aurungzebe and Nadir Shah, were heroes of the same school—all of them demons in human shape, who gloried in wholesale butcheries, without the least regard to age, sex, or condition.

2.—ITS GOVERNMENT, LAWS AND LITERATURE.

The period at which India becomes interesting to the European or American reader, dates from the siege of Trinchinopoly, by Lord Clive. It is true, that several centuries before, Portuguese and Dutch navigators had made many voyages to Sumatra and Java, which they afterwards extended to settlements on the eastern coast of Hindostan; but our British ancestors, who were always on the look-out for rich plunder, captured their vessels on their return voyage, and made such a splendid display of calicoes, pearls, porcelain, ebony, &c., that the eagle eyes of Queen Elizabeth were attracted towards the advantages to be derived by the establishment of a company of merchants, to whom she granted an exclusive charter, "to trade between the Cape of Good Hope and the Straits of Magellan," on the express condition, however, that no *gentleman* should have any connection with the management of its concerns. "The East India Company," at first a mere trading corporation, became

a formidable body, and possessed themselves, successively, of Madras, Bombay, and Calcutta, in the course of the seventeenth century. They gradually placed Benares, Seringapatam, Ceylon, and many other places, within the dominion of their all-grasping ambition. The splendid articles of Macaulay, on the Lives of Lord Clive and Warren Hastings, (with which, we presume, every one is familiar,) so completely absorb all that is interesting with regard to the rise and progress of British rule in that country, as to render it quite unnecessary for any other Reviewer to expatiate upon them. It is not to be supposed that the Indian Empire succumbed to the authority of their British masters, without many long and desperate struggles; but it seems to be the destiny of the Anglo-Saxon race to overcome all opposition, by their invincible valor, and the hereditary love of power and conquest, which has marked their whole career. For a long time a doubtful contest was waged between the bull-dog courage of the English and the game-cock gallantry of the French, which resulted in the complete triumph of the former; and the flag of St. George now floats proudly over every port in the peninsula. With regard to the government of the English over their enslaved subjects, there has been a great variety of opinion. The English historians themselves do not pretend that it has been immaculate—but attempt to justify their enormities on the old ground, the "tyrant's plea," of necessity and state policy. Clive, who expressed his astonishment at his own honesty in neglecting to plunder those lacs of rupees, about which his companions in arms showed no "compunctious visitings," finally committed suicide in a fit of remorse. His successor, Hastings, whose cruelties were of so astounding a character as to compel his own countrymen to call him to account, was acquitted, not so much because it was believed that he was innocent of the charges which were brought against him, but on account of their weariness and disgust with the whole matter. From Hastings the "unscrupulous," to Dalhousie the "foolish," the whole of the principles and policy of their government may be summed up in the words of one of their own poets, who lived for many years in India:

> "We are always taking—and we never give;
> We care not if they die, or if they live.
> Hard taskmasters! Beyond a Pharaoh's law,
> We first withhold, and then we take the straw,
> Yet look to see the tale of tricks the same,
> If not, 'tis them, and not ourselves, to blame.
> For joy or wretchedness—for weal or woe,
> We've one sole sentence—"*Pay us what you owe.*"

It is the opinion of those who have studied most profoundly the literature of the East, that the *Sanscrit* is the basis of the many dialects which are spoken in the different provinces of India. The Hindoos, themselves, claim for it a divine origin, and name it *Deva-Nagari*, or the "Writing of the Gods." As it is quite natural, they hold it in the same veneration that we entertain for the *Holy Scrip-*

tures. Sir William Jones thinks it "more perfect in its structure than the Greek, and more copious than the Latin"—in which opinion he is supported by the most distinguished Orientalists, since the untimely death of this eminent scholar and jurist.

The most important works of the Hindoos are the *Vedas*, which are divided into four classes. The first is called the *Rig-Veda*, which treats of the first cause of all things, of angels and demons, and all spiritual beings. The second, called *Yager-Veda*, treats of the ceremonies of religion. The third, or *Sama-Veda*, comprises hymns to their infernal deities, great and small. The fourth, and last, is called the *Atharoan-Veda*, which is not considered an inspired writing, contains their system of mental philosophy and metaphysics. Without enlarging upon these works, which are included in piles of huge folios, of the most gigantic dimensions, we will give one brief specimen, which we will leave to the reader to decide for himself, whether it contains more absurdity than sublimity.

"Possessed of innumerable heads, innumerable eyes, innumerable feet—*Brahma* fills the heavens and the earth. He is whatever was, whatever will be, his command is as the waters of life, he is the source of universal motion, he is the light of the moon, the sun, the fire, and the lightning. The *Veda* is the breath of his nostrils, the primary elements are his sight—the agitation of human affairs is his laughter, his sleep is the destruction of the universe. In different forms he cherishes the creatures; in the form of the air, he preserves them; in the form of water, he satisfies them; in the form of the sun, he assists them; in the affairs of life, and in that of the moon, he refreshes them in sleep; the progression of time forms his footsteps; all the gods, to him, are as sparks of fire. To him I bow—I bow."

Credat Judaeus Apellas, non ego.

Next in importance are the *Shastras*, the great works of Hindoo science, and are the text-books from which the Hindoo youth acquires the principles of the moral code, the science of architecture, law, logic, astrology, medicine, &c. Next come the *Pooranas*, which is the name given to their great mythological poems. It is compared, for its beauty, to a "deep and noble forest, rich in delicious fruits and fragrant flowers, shaded and watered by perpetual springs." But their greatest poem is the *Ramayana*, by the poet Valmiki. We will give a fair sample in the introduction, of which it is said, "that he who sings and hears this poem continually, has attained to the highest state of enjoyment, and will, finally, be equal to the gods." The outline of this poem is sketched by the pen of an eminent Orientalist:

"At different times, Boohdeir, or the earth, is represented as oppressed with monsters and demons. Unable any longer to bear their enormities, she enters the presence of *Vishnu*, entreats his interposition, and receives his promise that he will become incarnate, and destroy her enemies. Hence the many incarnations of that second of the *Triad*, as, for example, fish, tortoise, boar, man-lion, and ox. After describing these six incarnate forms of Vishnu, the author proceeds to the seventh, as *Rama*, son of Dusaratha, king of Oude. His wife is born a princess, and, in

process of time, they are united in marriage. Her father, Dusaratha, becomes old and infirm, and wishes Rama to take the reins of government into his hands. Rama replies: 'It cannot be—I have not been born for such a worldly purpose as this. I must call my wife, Seeta, along with me; we must reside, like ascetics, in the desert, and it will presently transpire for what purpose I appear among men.' He does so. They build a hermitage, and spend their time amongst the beasts of the forest. The giant, Ravenna, king of Lunka and Ceylon—the monster with ten heads and as many arms, and to destroy whom it is the design of the incarnation, hears this intelligence, and is determined, in the struggle, to give Rama as much trouble as he can. Having the power of changing his form, he assumes that of an ascetic, and whilst Rama is absent from the hermitage, he appears at the door, and entreats Seeta to give him alms. When approaching to bestow the bounty desired, he seizes, carries her off, and puts her in prison. On returning to the hermitage, Rama cannot find his wife, sinks into a sea of grief, utters the most piteous cries, and passes through those deep emotions of sorrow which characterize Eastern nations. To assist him in his conflicts with the giants, the angels are represented as becoming incarnate as *monkeys*, and Hunumunta is their leader. As the latter is worshiped in every town, and almost every village of India, it is evident he is a deity of no small consequence. Finding Rama in a state of despondency, he becomes his prime minister, and undertakes to visit Lunka, and find out the circumstances of Seeta. He assumes the form of a rat, and pursues his circuitous route through the houses of the enemy, till he discovers the prison where Seeta is confined. Like a faithful servant, he delivers to her the message of his master, and receives from Seeta her answers in return. After having emerged from the prison, he assumes his proper form—is seen scampering over the walls and houses—and excites much alarm among the giants in Lunka. Whether his visit was an omen of good or evil, they could not understand. At length they seized him as a prisoner, and brought him to the court of Ravenna, to be examined. As they would not give him a seat, but compelled him to stand, he took his tremendous tail, and coiled it, cable-like, till it rose to such a height as enabled him to sit down on an equality with the throne of Ravenna. In reply to the question put to him by the king, respecting his name, parentage and design, in visiting Lunka, he gave such shrewd and ingenious answers, that he sets the whole court in bursts of laughter against the sovereign. Ravenna is frantic with rage, and asks what is to be done with this monkey? Some proposed one thing, and some another; but all agreed in the suggestion, that he made such a boast of his tail, that it ought to be set on fire. Accordingly, all the old clothes, the rags and paper to be found in Lunka, are put in requisition, to make a flambeau of his tail. They cover it with tar and pitch, and other combustibles—set it on fire—and then liberate the prisoner, that they may have a day of frolic. No sooner does Hunumunta regain his liberty, than he commences a race—now through the fields of corn, and sets them on fire—then through the farm-yards, and over the hay-ricks, and puts them in a blaze—then over the walls, and through the houses, and kindles a fire which is not easily extinguished. (Verily, since Samson's foxes sallied out on a similar excursion—there never was the like of this!) Never did such an incendiary visit Lunka before. To save their city from destruction, the giants now pursue him to put out the torch which they had lighted. Hunumunta ascends the tower of a temple, and hides himself in its summit; and when he finds it well filled with giants, he throws it down with violence, and destroys them all. He makes his escape—dips his tail in the sea—and returns to Rama. After reporting

the exploits of his embassy, they assemble an army of monkeys—throw a bridge across the sea, from the continent to Ceylon—and lay siege to the fortress of Ravenna. The war is commenced, and prodigies of valor are performed on both sides, till Rama kills the monster, Ravenna, liberates his wife, Seeta, and delivers the earth from the giants, whose enormities cause her to groan."

This is one of their greatest epic poems, and is sung by their wandering bards—like that "blind, old vagabond, Homer"—to millions of admiring hearers.

We will give a brief extract in blank verse. "Rama tells Dusaratha that he would not gratify his wishes in the matter of succeeding him upon the throne of Oude, but must retire to a forest; the old man protested against his daughter's accompanying him." On which she addresses her husband in this touching strain:

Son of the venerable parent! hear,
'Tis Seeta speaks. Say, art thou not assured
That to each being his allotted time
And portion, as his merit, are assigned,
And that a wife her husband's portion shares?
Therefore, with thee this forest lot I claim.
A woman's bliss is found, not in the smile
Of father, mother, friend, or in herself:
Her husband is her only portion here,
Her heaven hereafter. If thou, indeed,
Depart this day into the forest drear,
I will precede and smooth the thorny way.
O chide me not; for where the husband is,
Within the palace, or the stately car,
Or wandering in the air, in every state
The shadow of his feet is her abode.
My mother and my father having left,
I have no dwelling-place distinct from thee.
Forbid me not. For as a gay recluse,
On thee attending, happy shall I feel,
Within this honey-scented grove to roam,
For thou even here cans't nourish and protect;
And therefore other friend I cannot need.
A residence in Heaven, O! Raghurn,
Without thy presence would no joy afford.
Therefore, though rough the path, I must, I will,
The forest penetrate, the wild abode
Of monkeys, elephants, and playful fawns.
Pleased to embrace thy feet, I will reside
In the rough forest, as my father's house.
Void of all other wish, supremely thine,
Permit me this request—I will not grieve—
I will not burden thee—refuse me not;
But should'st thou, Raghurn, this prayer deny,
Know, I resolve on *death*—if torn from thee.

Perhaps the sagacious critic may discover some resemblance between these lines and Milton's Eve in addressing her husband:

"O sole! in whom my thoughts find all repose—
My glory! My perfection!"

Or the tender supplications of the Iphigenia of Euripides in beseeching her father to withhold the cruel purpose of sacrificing her on the altar. The Iliad and the Æneid are mere fragments, when compared with these gigantic epics. Some of them are said to be two millions of lines in length—only a small portion being given to the inhabitants of the earth. "The rest are reserved for the gods."

Their *jurisprudence* consists of the *Institutes of Menu*, the *Vedas* and the *Smritee-Shastras*. The number of folios in which they are comprised is almost incredible; and are considered by the Hindoos to be "the ground-work of all judicial procedure in this world." They have also moral poets, who are deemed "an incarnation of wisdom." *Tiruvullavar* is at the head of this class, and is the author of that wonderful production, called the *Cural*. We will only give a few specimens, which are written in the *terza-rima* of Dante:

As the hook rules the elephant, so he
In wisdom firm, his earthly passions rule,
Who hopes to flourish in the soil of Heaven.

Refer not virtue to another day;
Receive her now, and at thy dying hour
She'll prove thy never-dying friend.

Sweet is the pipe and sweet the lute, they say,
They who have never heard their children's tongues
In infant prattle lisp.

Small as a grain of millet
Though it be—large as the towering palm
A benefit to grateful eyes appears.

That virtue which in all relations holds
Unchangeable in nature, that alone
Deserves the name of justice.

It is the glory of the just to stand
Like an adjusted balance, duly poised,
Nor swerve to either side.

These moral precepts, it will be remembered, were composed without the aid of the lights of revelation—for they were written fifteen hundred years before the Christian era. Their *Proverbs* are generally pointed and pithy, but do not possess any marked difference from those of other nations. We think that the *Proverbs of Solomon* and *Sancho-Panza* are quite equal to those of their profoundest sages. We will cite a few of them:

If *one* only knows the matter, it is a *secret*—if *two*, it is *public*.
Learn to thrive—*but forget it*.
If the ass be beaten with a bundle of sugar-cane, will he *thereby* taste its sweetness?
Of what use can the news of the country be to a frog in a rock?
Will the barking dog catch game?
Taxes and gruel will continually grow thicker.
While we meditate one thing, God determines another.
A dog is courageous—*in his own kennel*.
Taciturnity makes no blunders.
No one was ever ruined by speaking the truth.

"He that is slow to anger," says Solomon, "is better than the mighty —and he that ruleth his own spirit, is stronger than he that taketh a city."

Now for Sancho:

"Let him play, that knows the way—and St. Peter at Rome, is well off at home."

Their *Fables* are very much like those of Esop, and it is supposed by some that they were borrowed from that Prince of Fabulists. But time and space would fail us to speak of the "Nannese" and the "Nulvurle," and the "Nethenareverlukkam," and huge piles of other folios, of which it might be said with Oriental extravagance: "We suppose if all their books were gathered together—the world itself would not contain them." We must close our remarks upon this department of our subject, by using the language of Sir William Jones: "Wherever we direct our attention to Hindoo literature, the notion of infinity presents itself, and surely the longest life would not suffice for a single perusal of works that rise and swell protuberant, like the Himalayahs, above the bulkiest compositions of every language beyond the confines of India."

3.—OF SCIENCE AND RELIGION AMONG THE HINDOOS.

The most striking peculiarity of Hindoo science is the circumstance of having all their works on scientific subjects written in verse. This extends even to their works on Medicine, Grammar, and all practical affairs. Their knowledge of *Mathematics* seems to have been much greater than that of the Greeks and Romans, who adopted the clumsy method of computation by the letters of the Alphabet instead of the ten ciphers, which are used by all modern nations, and by the Hindoos, who used them from time immemorial, although the Arabians have the credit of being the inventors. In *Algebra* and *Geometry*, they are also considerably versed. With *Trignometry* and *Astronomy*, they seem to have been familiar at a very early period—the latter they claim to have received by a special *revelation* from Heaven, about two millions one hundred and sixty-four thousand eight hundred and ninety-nine years ago. For *Astrology*, they entertained a profound reverence, and were as superstitious as the Chaldees, or any of the old star-gazers. Of *Geography*, they were most profoundly ignorant. According to their theory, the earth was circular and flat—"like the flower of the water-lily, in which the petals project towards each other." They believe that the gods inhabit those vast mountains which surround them—"the furthermost of which is bounded by a salt sea. Beyond this sea are other seas:—the sea of sugar-cane juice—of spiritous liquors, of clarified butter—of curds of milk, and of sweet-water—each surrounding a separate continent; beyond all which, is a country of gold as large as the rest of the earth; then, a circular chain of mountains, and then the land of darkness, or Hell." Sir William Jones says, that their *Doctors* were mere empirics and quacks. They had no faith in the Sangrado system of "blood-letting and hot-water"—deeming that life consists of blood, and all "letting" of it to be an "abstraction of vitality."

For fevers they used bark, roots, fruit or flowers—but they generally adopted the starvation system—compelling their patients to fast from one to twenty days. It was usually the opinion of their ablest practitioners, that after the twentieth day it was entirely useless to apply any further remedies—the patient happily falling into that delightful slumber which knows no waking. Of late years, medical colleges, hospitals, and polytechnic schools have been established, in which they teach chemistry, galvanism, electricity, &c.—but they are incredulous about the application of it to the conveyance of news. When told of it by a European, they exclaim: "Your honor says so, and therefore it must be so—*but I would much prefer to see it.*"

Their *lawyers* are as numerous as blackberries, but they employ their own *vakeels* or pettifoggers in preference to the English barristers, whose enormous fees, they say, are ruinous to a poor man. Their system of laws, however, it is thought by those who are most familiar with it, bears a favorable comparison with that of every other nation.

"*Agriculture*," says a distinguished Orientalist, "stands foremost among the pursuits of native Hindoos. Two modes of cultivation are practised, *wet* and *dry*, the former being devoted principally to rice and indigo, the land requiring to be watered by means of tanks with their high, strong embankments, and wells from twenty to three hundred feet deep, while upon the dry lands are the sugar-cane, barley, wheat, and various other grains, fruits and vegetables. The plough used by the farmer consists of two rude sticks, or one if sufficiently crooked, with an iron spike at the end as a share, which the ploughman guides with one hand, while he uses the other in directing the movements of the cattle; thus making a rut or scratch in the field similar to the movement just beneath the soil of a strong finger. Entering a village at an early hour of the day, you will see the farmer going to his toil, bearing upon his shoulder yoke and plough, which he steadies with one hand, while with the other he holds the rope-reins fastened to his tiny bullocks. The sowing is as clumsy as the ploughing. The common drill-machine has three pieces of sticks, that make scratches about an inch and a half in depth, and the seeds drop into the scratches through three hollow bits of bamboo, that are immediately behind the scratching sticks. These bamboos are united to one rude vessel at the top, containing the seeds. The larger seeds are sown by means of a bamboo, fastened to a drill by a string, and having a little cup at the end. A woman attends to this bamboo, holding it directly over any one of the three scratches into which she wishes the seed to fall, with one hand, and dropping the seed into the cup with the other. The *covering plough* follows, which is a horizontal stick, drawn along by two bullocks, and by being pressed against the ground, covers the seed with mould. The operation of sowing requires the attention of four persons, and the labor of four bullocks. The business of the *harrow* is performed by an instrument like a ladder, on which the husbandman stands, while rough bushes attached to it assist in smoothing the ground. Instead of threshing machines, the rice is beaten out of the husk, the

pulse trodden out by the cattle, and the small grain threshed with a staff. These implements are the same that have been in use throughout the land from time immemorial! Rice, wheat, barley, indigo, opium, sugar, and tobacco, are among their principal productions. The productions of the *loom* are muslins, chintz, silks, carpets, calicoes and shawls, which are proverbial for the beauty of their coloring—although in texture they are not equal to those of Europe and our own country.

Their *popular games* are similar to those of America: such as chess, backgammon, marbles, cock-fighting, and other amusements which are of a more demoralizing character. Tiger and elephant-hunting are some of their most manly and dangerous sports—a nabob often turning out with a retinue of a hundred strong. *Gymnastics* and *jugglery* are extremely popular, and what we classically denominate *hocus-pocus*, such, for example, as cutting the throat of a *pig* in the full vigor of life, and then restoring him to all his pristine swinish dignity, is applauded to the echo. Their fondness for *music* is one of their most peculiar traits. Sir William Jones, who seems to have had as ardent a love for music as for every thing that was of an intellectual or spiritual character, relates a story which he received from a learned Hindoo, "who told him that he had seen the most venomous and malignant snakes leave their holes upon hearing tunes on a flute, which gave them peculiar delight. And an intelligent Persian, who, repeating his story again and again, and permitted him to write it down from his own lips, declared that he had more than once been present when a celebrated lutanist, named *Balbal*, was playing to a large company, in a grove near Shiraz, when he distinctly saw the nightingales trying to vie with the musician—sometimes warbling on the trees, sometimes fluttering from branch to branch, as if they wished to approach the instrument whence the melody proceeded; and at length dropping on the ground in a kind of ecstacy, from which they were soon raised by a change of note." Despite their love of the marvellous, the argument in favor of the Christian system, drawn from *miracles*, is almost powerless upon their minds. Over against one miracle of the Gospel record, multitudes are contained in their sacred books, and performed before their eyes. Their judgment may tell them that it is jugglery, and so they say may have been those of the Founder of Christianity. To pluck at mountains, and hurl them to and fro at will—to cut off parts of the moon, and cast them to the earth—to fish up sacred books from the bottom of the sea—these are but a few among the deeds of the Hindoo deities, and what more of miracle can any religion allege?

This objection against the *special* divinity of Christianity is often and skillfully used by the Brahmin to parry the blow aimed against his favorite creed, and to gain for the system he teaches a stronger hold upon the faith of its credulous and attached devotees.

The word *caste* was originally introduced by the Portuguese to designate the different classes of society. The first rank is that of *Brahmin* and the *Kshatiras*, the *Veishas* and the Soodras, with various subdivisions; the lowest of which is the Pariah, who, together with all foreigners, are considered the offscourings of society.

With regard to the religion of the Hindoos, as they lay claim to three hundred and thirty millions of divinities of a subordinate character, we cannot be expected to say anything concerning them. Their "great guns" were *Brahma*, *Vishnu* and *Siva*, who constitute the *Triad*. Brahma is styled the "Great Father," and Vishnu, the "Purifier," and Siva, the "Destroyer," or the Devil. The peculiarities of these were of so impious and disgusting a character, that we must beg to be excused for even alluding to them. We will only say, that the practical working of their whole system leads to the utmost depravity of morals and manners. The earliest authentic date of which we know any thing concerning the missionary enterprise in India, was in the fourteenth century, under the auspices of François Xavier and other Jesuits of the Romish Church. Bishop Heber is, however, of opinion, that St. Thomas was the first who preached the Gospel, and suffered martyrdom in that country—a church having been erected near the city of Madras in honor of that apostle. The first charter for the establishment of Protestant missions was in the reign of William the Third, in the year A. D. 1701. This was followed by the "Danish Missionary Society" in 1705. Since this time almost every denomination of Christians in England and on the continent, as well as in our own country, have established missionary societies in various portions of India. But we must conclude our article in the words of an American Missionary who has recently returned from that country:

"The whole missionary corps of India, able-bodied, and ripe for action, cannot exceed *one hundred and fifty*, and speaking twenty different languages. When I tell my readers that the whole number of converts to Christianity, excluding the members of the Church of Rome, cannot exceed ten thousand, let him not be surprised and disheartened, but rather be thankful that against such fearful odds such results have been gained. England requires two hundred thousand well-disciplined troops to subject to her dominion the flesh and blood of India. And now because a few soldiers of the cross have not taken from Satan and all his principalities and powers in these his high places of abomination and sin, this his most loyal province, and are not now with the millions of its redeemed people, shouting high and jubilant songs of conquest, there are, forsooth, those who begin to wonder at the protraction of the fight, and to despond of conquest. If any are disposed to despond, let them remember Calvary, and say, "From the cross came the crown—out of the grave came heaven—through the gibbet's shame came the Church's glory." As it was in Judea, so is it in India. Though there be night, "the morning cometh." This must be our motto to warm our zeal and nerve our arm—to cheer our despondency, and strengthen our faith: "FAINT, YET PURSUING."

NOTE.—Since writing the above article, we have seen in the October number of the "Westminster Review," a critique on a Hindoo drama, entitled "Vicramorvase"—by Kalidasa. Edited for the use of the students of the East India College. And "Mahavira-charita," or the History of Rama; a Sanscrit play, by a member of the Asiatic Society of Paris. The history of the Hindoo drama is discussed at considerable length—introducing us into a new world of romance and poetry.

ART. VI.—THE EARTH AND MAN.

THE STUDY AND KNOWLEDGE OF NATURE, AND MORE PARTICULARLY THE STUDY AND KNOWLEDGE OF THE EARTH AND MAN.*

[THE following paper was delivered by the Editor, as an address before the *Cliosophic Society of the College of Charleston*, at its anniversary celebration, on the 15th of November last. A copy of it, on behalf of the Society, was requested for publication; but being on the eve of departure from Charleston, we promised to supervise and re-write, at our leisure moments, in New-Orleans, the manuscript which had been prepared in the short space of three or four days. Having waited three months for these *leisure* moments in vain, and being hopeless, in the multiplicity of our engagements, of ever having them at command, we have concluded, at last, to let the paper go with all its imperfections on its head. Hardy as the resolution is, we are, at the same time, unwilling to trust it as a *separate pamphlet*, with all official pomp and circumstance, to invite criticism; but prefer it should assume the shape of an article in a magazine, perchance to be overlooked, or at most skimmed, amid a mass of more interesting material. We beg pardon to our friends of the Society for such a liberty; but hardly think they will be *inconsolable*. At all events, their *treasury* will escape a round tax by our resolution; and if they will insist upon reading the document, the gentlemen may have the worst of the bargain. As we hate apologies—here they end; and here, most likely, would be the *omega* of the whole matter, if we had any other article at hand to occupy the pages that are reserved for this.]

IN the limited sphere of an address, I can hope to do little more than glance at the mere outlines of a subject I have selected for myself, and which may, in brief, be represented as "The History of the Study and Knowledge of Nature, and more particularly the Study and Knowledge of the Earth and Man."

If I can, from the great field which opens itself infinitely out, here seize upon a few prominent points of interest and attraction—flowers from a garden where all is oriental luxuriance and beauty—and present them in any manner, however feeble, which may excite your further prosecution of the study, I shall deem myself abundantly happy.

Gentlemen, in the fields of nature—the natural world—how boundless and inexhaustible are the subjects which present themselves in progression to the mind of man, and how, in comparison with their exquisite grace and finish, and marvellous perfection, do all that he has achieved in his boasted advances in arts, civilization and progress, dwindle away into little less than microscopic insignificance! I have in my mind a passage from Aristotle, which Cicero has preserved,

* The texts upon which our discourse hangs, are chiefly the Baron Humboldt's Cosmos, Guyot's Earth and Man, Dr. Nott's Lectures on Man, etc. A great many *very learned* notes were intended, but the reader has escaped them, by the same providence which prevents our re-writing the manuscript. This is a practical proof of the error of reserving one's learning for his notes.

beautifully showing this contrast of the works of nature and the works of art. The philosopher supposes a nation dwelling in the centre of the earth, shut up by its close walls; but yet, possessed of all the rich abundance in houses, palaces, statuary, paintings, &c., of nation, in the highest possible civilization and luxury. "If such beings," he tells us, "could receive tidings of the power and might of the gods, and could then emerge from their hidden dwellings through the open fissures of the earth to the places which we inhabit—could suddenly behold the earth, and the sea, and the vault of heaven—could recognise the expanse of the cloudy firmament, and the might of the winds of heaven, and admire the sun in its majesty, beauty, and radiant effulgence; and lastly—when night veiled the earth in darkness, could behold the starry heavens, the changing moon, and the stars rising and setting in the unvarying course ordained from eternity, they would surely exclaim—'These are gods, and such great things must be the work of their hands.'"

In the struggle to grasp even a few of the pearly shells on the great and infinite shores of nature, much less to rise to a comprehension of the myriads of perfect forms, which, in a drop of water, or in a universe of worlds, exhibit her inexhaustible wealth and resources, a crushing sense of immensity is upon us—a sense of nothingness and might,—the worm and the God!

It is the same to me, and I cannot distinguish the emotions into greater and less, when I am told by Ehrenberg that 40,000,000,000 of the silicious shellss of Galionellæ are contained in a cubic inch of the polishing slate of Bilan; or when Herschell declares, that in the clusters of the milky way, there are more than eighteen millions of suns, each the centre of a universe of planets and moons, some of them so distant, that they must have been in existence *two millions of years* before a ray of their light could have reached our earth; or when we are assured by the same great astronomer, that the processes of growing worlds may be traced in the heavens in the contraction and hardening of nebulous matter: "worlds bursting into life," in a poetic figure, "like grass in the night!"

I dare not presume upon a hasty glance at even the prominent divisions which, like great landmarks, lead us onward in our study of Nature in all of her infinite and wondrous developments. The fields of astronomy, of geology, natural history, and botany, chemistry, mineralogy, and paleontology, must each be exhausted before philosophy can realize how meagre, in all their magnificence, after all, are her attainments! The humbler part will be ours, to trace out merely something of the progress of the mind of man, as it has employed itself in all ages in the investigation and discovery of physical laws and phenomena, and by almost imperceptible degrees traced out the earth we inhabit, for this at present is the extent to which our labors can reach its configuration and general physiognomy, its vegetable and animal life, and the races of men who have influenced and controlled its historical developments.

In the ages of antiquity most distinguished for refinement and civilization, the study of physical forms and natural forces yielded always in importance to that of the intellectual, moral and metaphy-

sical nature of man. The Greek, though situated, as it were, in a garden, around which lingered all the most beautiful, captivating and lovely scenery, blended with the softest and most luxuriant climate, seemed incapable of rising higher than a mere intellectual appreciation, in which the heart had little, if anything, to do. Man and his occupations, his passions and his struggles, human and active life, psychological and historical results, were sufficient to absorb every mental energy. Here centered the whole intellectual system. The epic and the lyric exhausted the domains of poetry, in which *man* was introduced as the actor, and nature but in the relative and subordinate, I had almost said degraded, position. The later days of Greece, which witnessed the growth of descriptive and didactic poetry, witnessed at the same time the decline that had already taken place in the national genius, and spirit, and freedom.

The Romans differed little in these respects from their neighbors, whose civilization they absorbed. In their forms of literature, poetry and philosophy, they were but close, and, in many respects, barren imitators. In Virgil, Ovid, Horace and Tibullus, the subordinate part of nature is again made prominently to project, whilst man and society are the fond and cherished idols. Cæsar, who was at once a philosopher and a general, in his passage of the Alps saw nothing in its gorgeous scenery to attract him from the composition of a grammatical work, and Silius Italicus describes these very Alps, and the magnificent outlines of Switzerland, as *a barren and hideous wilderness!* "No description," says Humboldt, "has been transmitted to us from antiquity of the eternal snows of the Alps, reddened by the evening glow or the morning dawn, of the beauty of the blue ice of the glaciers, or of the sublimity of Swiss natural scenery, although statesmen and generals, with men of letters in their retinue, continually passed through Helvetia on their way to Gaul. All these travellers think only of complaining of the wretchedness of the roads, and never appeared to have paid any attention to the romantic beauty of the scenery through which they passed.

An exception, however, occurs in the case of Cicero, who seemed never, in all the affairs of state, the triumphs of oratory, and the pursuits of philosophy, to have lost his relish for whatever was lovely and attractive in the natural world. "Nothing," he writes to Atticus, "can be more delightful than this solitude—nothing more charming than this country-seat, the neighboring shore, and the view of the sea. Next to my Atticus, nothing is so dear to me as solitude, in which I hold intercourse with philosophy, though often interrupted by my tears. I struggle as much as I am able against such emotions, but, as yet, I am unequal to the contest."

The introduction of Christianity, in giving higher notions of God, and, as it were, elevating his works, as in some degree the reflection of his excellence and perfection, whilst it diminished the importance of merely *human* action and machinery, was favorable to the progress of natural studies. We find in the earlier fathers a spirit, nowhere to be sought among the philosophers of a previous age, and, chiefly, in Basil the Great, his brother Gregory of Nyssa, and Chrysostom.

Unhappily, however, in subsequent ages, as the Christian system became degraded in its contest with heathen mythologies, the study of nature came again to be regarded as but a cunning expedient of witchcraft and sorcery, to be interdicted to the faithful, "with all sinful books of physics," in the celebrated Councils of Tours and of Paris! Albertus Magus and Roger Bacon were the first to deliver science from this thraldom of monkish bigotry and ignorance.

The Germanic races of the middle ages combined with that haughty spirit of freedom and independence which is exhibited in all the constitutions that have been perfected out of their political systems, a love and enjoyment of nature, developing itself in their inner life and manners and institutions, and in the songs of their *Minnesingers*, which form so interesting a part of the literature of those rude and stormy times.

If, however, from what is distinguished as classical antiquity, and the forms of society which grew out of it, we pass to other still remote nations, who have played no unimportant historical part, these instructive inquiries into their appreciation of the physical and material world may still further be pushed with advantage.

India, as far back as the most fabulous and mythical times, opens her broad gates as the cradle in which the natural sciences were first rocked. It is not difficult to appreciate how it happened, on the theory of Lasseu, that a part of the Arian race, with their high and noble characteristics and elevated mental endowments, emigrated thither from the northwest of Asia, that so genial a climate, so prolific a soil, such rich and spontaneous products and inexhaustible vegetable life, should have induced in the Indians a contemplative tone of mind, reflected in all their literature, and generating, at last, that theological system of the Brahmins, which, as it were, *deifies* the forces of nature. We catch this spirit in the Vedas, the most ancient of their poems; in the works of Kalidasa, and in the heroic poems of Ramayana and Mahalharata, made known to us by oriental scholars. On the other hand, the Persians, or West Arians, though of a later origin, exhibit far less of the fervor for natural scenery, there being little in the characteristics of Persia like those of Hindostan, to stimulate the wild outpourings of a spirit.

Passing northwards from the Iranian Plateaux to the Uralian Mountains, we come to the primitive seat of the Finnish race. A collection of the songs of this people, made long subsequent, breathes an animated love of nature, rarely to be met with in any other poetry but that of India. An ancient epos, containing nearly 3,000 verses, treats of a fight between the Fins and the Laps, and the fate of a demi-god named Vaino, and gives a deeply-interesting and graphic account of Finnish country life.

With Hebrew poetry we are all familiar. Seizing upon the highest forms of expression, it loses itself in the glorious effort to compass all nature as *the handiwork of God!* Terrestrial and celestial scenery are blended into one view, with religious fervor and oriental luxuriance of figure, as expressive of the greatness and the glory of Jehovah. A single psalm, which should be in the heart of

every one, is said, with a few grand, yet simple touches, to depict the whole *Cosmos*, or universal nature. "Oh! Lord, my God! thou art very great—thou art clothed with honor and majesty—who coverest thyself with light as with a garment, who stretchest out the heavens like a curtain—who layeth the beams of his chambers in the waters—who maketh the clouds his chariot—who walketh upon the wings of the wind. Oh! Lord, how manifold are thy works—in wisdom hast thou made them all—the earth is full of thy riches. The Lord shall rejoice in his works. He looketh upon the earth, and it trembleth—he touches the hills, and they smoke."

The discovery of America introduced to Europe new and stirring scenes, in which all the grandest and most magnificent features of nature were revealed; in comparison with which, what had been previously familiar, seemed but tame and unimposing. Nothing could surpass the deep and general excitement of all classes in which imagination was aroused, by the narrations of commanders and soldiers, to the daily expectancy of new and still higher revelations. "The tropical world, with all the luxuriance of its vegetation on the plains, with all the gradations of its varied organisms on the declivities of the Cordilleras, and with all the reminiscences of northern climates, associated with the inhabited plateaux of New-Mexico, New-Granada and Quito, were now first revealed to the eyes of Europeans. A passionate love of the study of nature, which originated chiefly in the North, glowed in the breasts of all; intellectual expansion of views became associated with the enlargement of knowledge, while the poetic and sentimental tone of feeling peculiar to the epoch of which we speak, has, since the close of the last century, been identified with literary compositions, whose forms were unknown to former ages."

Thus have we, though it must be confessed in a very inadequate manner, marked the gradual development in all nations of the love and study of nature from the remotest periods, when myths and allegorical symbols supplied the place of that actual knowledge we have at last attained of the operations of the physical world.

Gentlemen, in the history of the knowledge of our own earth, its continental masses, plains, plateaux and mountains—its great oceans and islands and rivers—its various heterogeneous and scarcely assimilated races and nations, a subject is unfolded to us, upon which it is scarcely possible to exhaust our interest. With your permission, we shall employ the remainder of this address in its examination and development.

The progress of the same spirit of scientific research, generalization and classification, which has forced history to rise higher than a mere barren concatenation of events, has, if I may so express myself, developed a philosophy of geography. No longer satisfied with barren enumerations of physical phenomena, like the catalogue of Homer's ships, it is the part of enlightened geography, or as it should be more properly, geogony, to seize upon the relations of matter in its action upon matter, or upon organized beings and human societies; descending down, as it were, beneath the crust,

into the very physiology and life of the globe. It is in this field the great Humboldt, after an octogenarian experience, measures again his strength. Here we trace the pathway of Carl Ritter and Steffens, and follow the legitimate development of their labors in the physical atlas of Berghaus and Keith Johnson, or in the lectures of Arnold Guyot, delivered last winter in the University of Cambridge, which I commend to your earnest attention.

I cannot but dwell, for a moment, upon the importance of that portion of physical geography which employs itself in tracing the characteristic differences and various types of the human race, and in which the present age is more actively employed than any previous one has been. The origin of races, the climatic and physical causes operating upon them, the relations in the roots and structure of languages, the modifying and controlling forces of great natural boundaries and divisions,—in fact, everything that is understood by ethnology, is as deserving of the attention of the political economist, statesman, and sound practical philosopher, as the mere man of science. In the application of political theories and systems, the statesman who overlooks great and cardinal distinctions in the races and geographical relations of men, will in vain attempt to work out the problems of their social and political existence. This truth was perceived by Mr. Calhoun, as I think is clearly manifest in that remarkable speech made at nearly the close of his career, which opens with a refutation of the strained dogma attributed to Mr. Jefferson, "that all men are born free and equal," and a profound ignorance of it is at the bottom of all the wild dreams and vagaries of the reformers of the present day. The Prudhons and Fouriers, French Socialists, Continental Republicans, Northern Abolitionists, who, setting out with the perfect *equality* in every respect of all the nations and families of men, proclaim the doctrines of universal republicanism, *universal agrarianism*, and in addition, the fullness of liberty and freedom from all restraint, stand ready to fit, as in the bed of Procrustes, Hottentot and Bushman, semi-civilized Negro and Caucasian, to nstitutions of a common shape and character!

It is, therefore, that I look to ethnological studies as the sure means of correcting the inveterate and dangerous vagaries of political theorists, and of saving mankind a repetition of the scenes of blood and slaughter, growing out of the physically impossible efforts of conquerors to fuse discordant and irreconcilable races into one common mass. The idle fantasies, too, of a pseudo-philanthropy and *patriotism*, seeking in a lower state of civilization, or in a lower ethnological type to imitate the forms and institutions of a higher and more perfect one, must, I think, at the same time be dissipated or controlled.* It is in this respect I have taken an especial interest in the explorations and discussions of my learned friend Dr. Nott, of Mobile, which have been followed up by Morton and Agassiz, and

* When General Lafayette, at the head of the National Guard, might have declared a republic for France, he did not hesitate to announce, the French people were unprepared for such a government.

replied to by your erudite and estimable citizen, Bachman, a name so proudly recognized in the world of science.

Gentlemen, I had hoped to open before you in this address, many of the striking and beautiful relations and contrasts in the continents, islands, oceans and climates of the earth, as they influence vegetable and animal life, and man and society, the great ends, so far as we can see of all this modification of matter, as physical geography furnishes them; but I perceive already with reluctance, that time will not now admit. I must, however, advert to a few of the most striking of these relations.

Though it be true that a depression of a few hundred feet would make no change on the essential forms of the solid mass of the earth, we are not on that account to underrate the influence even of the shapes and contours of continents on the life and character of man. Were all the peninsulas and islands of Europe, the great historical continent, so added to the common mass, as to give one uniform rounded contour, we should have had, even now, perhaps, the uniformity and barbarism of New Holland. It cannot be unimportant that a country is elevated or spread out upon the level of the sea, when we compare in the same latitude Hindostan, with the glowing life of the tropics, and the deserts of Thibet, the perpetual and deadly fevers of Vera Cruz, and the perpetual springs of the Mexican plains.* "Place the beautiful peninsulas of Europe and India," says Mr. Guyot, "on the north of their continents, Italy and Greece become Scandinavia, and India a Kamtschatka. Placed at the east of Asia, all Europe would be but a frozen peninsula. In the same manner, if the Rocky Mountains bordered the eastern coast of North America, and closed against the nations of the East and of Europe the entrance to the rich valley of the Mississippi; or if this immense chain extended from east to west, across the northern part of the continent, and barred the passage of the polar winds, which now rush unobstructed over these vast plains; or even less, if preserving all the great present features of this continent, we suppose, only, the interior plains were inclined slightly towards the north, and that the Mississippi entered into the Frozen Ocean, who does not see, that in these various cases, the relations of warmth and moisture, the climate, and with it the vegetation and the animal world, would undergo the most important modifications, and that these changes of form and relative position would have an influence greater still upon the destinies of human society, both in the present and in the future."

To follow out these remarkable relations a little further, though their importance at first sight be not so obvious, we observe what was first pointed out by Lord Bacon, that the extremities of the old and the new world both terminate at a point in the south, and go on gradually widening to the northward. Forster, whom Humboldt acknowledges as his first guide in these researches, adds, that the southern points are always rocky, are the extremes of mountain

* Guyot's Lectures.

belts, and have to their eastward a large island, or groups of islands, and that all the continents have a deep bend on their western side, towards the interior of the land. The further singular relation was perceived by Humboldt, that on the two sides of the Atlantic the salient or projecting angles of the one *exactly* correspond to the re-entering angles of the other: Cape St. Rogue to the Gulf of Guinea, Cape Verd to the Gulf of Mexico. The grouping of the continental masses belongs to Steffens, who discovered they were arranged two and two in three double worlds, united by an isthmus or a chain of islands—on the one side of the isthmus exists always an archipelago, on the other a peninsula. These double worlds are the two Americas; Europe, including a part of Western Asia and Arabia, united to Africa by the Isthmus of Suez; Asia—Australia with the continuous chain of islands interposed. Leaving the domain of the solid earth, it was Carl Ritter who, drawing a great circle through the coasts of Peru and Southern Asia, traced the existence of two great hemispheres, the one the continental or *land*, the other the oceanic, or *water* hemisphere.

But further than this, whilst in the new world the continents extend from *north to south*, which gives to America all the zones of the earth, and the greatest diversity of climatic relations, in the old world the line of their projection is from *east to west*. A more important contrast between the different continents, consists in their different indentations or length of sea-coasts: since these, in promoting foreign intercourse, are at the bottom of most of the civilization of the world. We have Africa presenting a uniform, monotonous and unbroken front to the sea, and assuming the character in fact, as in history, of a closed continent. We have Asia numerously indented and articulated with peninsulas and bays; but still far behind Europe, which is almost entirely composed of these irregularities of feature, opening her interior at every point to the sea, and giving to her 3,000 miles more of sea-coast than Africa, which has three times her dimensions. In the new world, North America, in line of coasts, has greatly the advantage of South America, and is, indeed, more highly favored in this regard than any other part of the world, except Europe.

Time will not permit us to trace the great common law of slopes and counter-slopes, and reliefs of continents, the most remarkable of which are the gentle and lengthened slopes of the great mountain chains towards the Atlantic and the Frozen Oceans, and the steep and abrupt slopes towards the Pacific. Nor can we advert to the contrasts of mountains, plateaux and plains, the former giving character to the old world, and the latter to the new.

Nor are the configurations of the oceans less singular and interesting than those of the lands. The Pacific, the Atlantic, and the Indian oceans correspond to the double worlds of Steffens. In their contours they have a common opening towards the south, and are narrowed towards the north—the reverse of the continents. The Pacific is an oval, the Indian ocean a triangle, with its vortex to the south, the Atlantic a valley with parallel sides, widening into the Frozen Ocean.

The first is characterized by its "closed seas," the second by its "gulfs," the third by its "inland seas," making it, in the figure of Mr. Guyot, the most *maritime* of oceans, as the Pacific is the most *oceanic*. But we must not stop at the mere surface of these great waters. What an unexplored field is still spread out beneath, in which imagination and conjecture are left to exhaust themselves! Where do these depths terminate, or are they, in accordance with popular notions, interminable? The line and the thermometer have failed to solve the enigma. Captain Scoresby sounded 7,200 feet in the Polar seas in vain; Captain Ross 6,000 feet in Baffin's Bay; Captain Davis 7,800 feet south of Nantucket; and those three gallant American officers, the two Baches and Walsh, have reached respectively the prodigious and altogether unexampled measurements of 13,000 feet, 19,800 feet, and 34,200 feet, without succeeding in either case in finding a resting place for the lead. It would be necessary, says Guyot, to add Mount Washington to the Dhalva Giri, to attain a height equal to this great sounding of Walsh—and if we add the greatest sea depth known to the highest mountains, there is a thickness of 62,000 feet, or about eleven miles, which must be given to the outer layer of our globe.

And, finally, if we compare the old and the new world together, giving a close attention to the physiology of their structure, we shall be able to trace many of the causes at work in determining the diversities of vegetable and animal nature and man. The old and the new world differ in the number, extent, and groupings of their Continents, in their situation with respect to climatic zones, in the general direction of their lands, and in their internal structure.* The new world, from its greater abundance of waters, and its consequent great *humidity* of atmosphere, stimulates into a riotous luxuriance all the forms of vegetable life, and those insect and reptile organisms most intimately dependent upon them. In the higher animal life, and in man, the dry or continental climate of the old world develops a much higher perfection. Thus, in the same scientific order the elephant, rhinoceros and hippopotamus, of the old world, have their counterparts in the insignificant and feeble tapir and pecari of the new. For the camel and the dromedary, there answers the lama of the Andes, of but half the size; for the kingly lion and the fierce tiger, the ounce and the jaguars of Brazil, but a description of larger cats! The same *inferiority* in the higher animal life is everywhere manifested in the new world, and in the highest degree in *man*. Whilst America, from Labrador to Cape Horn, can boast of but a single copper-colored race, the old world embraces four or five distinct races, or families of men. Here emanate the White or Caucasian, the great historical and progressive family, which has attained nearly all that modern civilization claims. Here exist the Mongolian and Malayan, still superior to the copper-colored. "If we take," according to Guyot, "even those races of the temperate regions of the old world, at the lowest degree of the social state, the

* Guyot.

nomadic tribes of the plateaux of Eastern Asia, and of the Western steppes, they are still far superior to the hunting tribes of the two Americas. There is even in the tropical man of the old world, in Africa at least, a somewhat of native vigor, of *vital energy*, manifested by his sanguine temperament, by his gayety, by his lively affections, and by his *muscular strength*, placing him higher than the Indians of tropical America.

In this striking relation of the two worlds, how much may we not mark which seems to indicate a great *final cause*. In the one a dense vegetable life, exuberance of soil, luxurious, spontaneous production, combined with scanty population, are opened to the eager interests and desires of the other, where nature, in some respects, is more of a sluggard, and developes, in its highest perfection, nothing so much as *man*;—man, who, from the remotest times, has gone on multiplying in her midst in a ratio which has peopled with dense numbers every plain and valley. Thus the new world welcomes to her bosom the crowded emigration of the old, and, for three hundred years, the stream has been continually setting in the one inviting quarter.

Gentlemen, after these hurried reflections, which give but a meagre insight into the nature of the studies of the earth and man, which are now being everywhere prosecuted with so much active research, let us take a rapid survey of the progress, from the most humble and obscure beginnings, of the knowledge and extent of the earth's surface, and of the various phenomena and features which characterize it.

I have in my hand the copy of a map, drawn and colored by my friend, Dr. Nott, of Mobile, which I regret is not large enough to be perceived by you at this distance, but which indicates the world, as it was *known* and *unknown* to the ancients, in the most advanced period of their history. What a blank does this map present of about *nine-tenths* of the earth's surface! Beyond the south of Europe, the west of Asia, Palestine and Arabia, with a narrow slip on the north of Africa, everything is *terra incognita*, as much so almost as the surface of the moon. Not that explorations may not, at distant periods, have been made within some of these limits, but that nothing had been preserved of them but the most vague, and often preposterous, traditions. The great geographer, Strabo, who was a contemporary of Christ, knew nothing of the north of Asia, of the Chinese Empire, or of India, except through confused Greek traditions. The interior of Africa was to him desert and uninhabitable, and the equator an altogether unapproachable limit. The Nile, according to Virgil, flowed from India and Britain—in the view of the profound Tacitus, was bounded on the *west* by Spain!

Taking the Mediterranean as the starting point in the knowledge of cosmogony, we find that, in the time of Homer, Italy was an unknown land, and remained so until the Phœnicians, according to Humboldt, opened the Tyrrhenian basin west of Sicily, and Tartesian mariners reached the Pillars of Hercules. Egyptian civilization, which runs back to the dynasty of Manetho, thirty-four centu-

ries before Christ, displayed itself in a growing disposition to undertake remote expeditions, and colonize distant lands. Rameses Miamoun, 1300 years B. C., penetrated, according to Herodotus, into Ethiopia, where Lepsius thinks his most southern architectural works were found; and crossed from Asia Minor into Europe. This Rameses, or Sesostris, is said to have reached India beyond the Ganges, bringing back captives from Babylon, and to have first attempted a canal through the Isthmus of Suez.

The Phœnicians made still further advances in geogony, in planting their colonies along the Euxine, on the Bithynian shore, on the islands of the Ægean, on the south of Spain, on the north of Africa, or in commercial expeditions to the tin and amber lands of the north of Europe, to the Persian Gulf, etc. They visited a large part of the northwest coast of Africa, and it is even conjectured, reached some part of the American coast or neighboring islands, 2,500 years before Columbus, and 2,000 before Eric Randaus's celebrated voyage to Greenland! The Tyrian flag floated simultaneously in the British and Indian seas—and under it was conducted a caravan trade in spices and incense with Arabia Felix, through Palmyra, and to the Chaldean or Nebathacic Gerrha, on the Western or Arabian side of the Persian Gulf.

The Greeks, who come next in the order of time, were influenced, as Humboldt tells us, by three causes, in extending their knowledge of the earth—the attempts to penetrate beyond the Mediterranean to the east, similar attempts towards the west, and the establishment of influential colonies from the Pillars of Hercules to the Euxine. The advance towards the east is known in history as the *Argonautic Expedition* to Colchis, 1,200 years B. C., and although the accounts of this adventure are, for the most part, mythical and fabulous, there are strong reasons to think it but an early attempt to open the inhospitable Euxine to the commerce of Western Europe. Though the Phœnicians had long before passed beyond the Gaderian Gate, or Pillars of Hercules, it was Colæus of Samos, who, being driven out of the Mediterranean by storms, was the first to make known to the admiring Greeks the existence of the great and boundless ocean. Ever striving to pass beyond this common barrier, Phœnicians, Greeks, Arabs, Catalans, Venetians, Portuguese, Spaniards, &c., essayed the passage of the Atlantic, believed by them to be "a miry and shallow deep," and proceeding from station to station, now the Canaries, then the Azores, finally reached, after some 2,500 years, the body of the Western Continent, to find themselves anticipated 500 years by the Northmen, who had proceeded on a route altogether different.

The wars of Alexander the Great, or the Macedonian campaigns, which, from the number of learned naturalists, artists and philosophers who accompanied them, partake almost of the nature of scientific expeditions, extended very greatly the area of geographical knowledge, and of the progressive history of mankind. The aim of the conqueror was to "amalgamate the nations into a unity, under Hellenistic influences." Diversities the most remote, of countries,

climates, and races, were made known in his progress, and an intimate knowledge derived of those Eastern products of which commercial intercourse had, as yet, furnished little, and which, at this day, occupy so important a place in the exchanges of civilized nations; to wit, rice, cotton, spices, and opium—wines from the juice of palms, sugar from the sugar cane, wool from the bombax tree, Thibetian goats' hair shawls, ottar of roses, and other perfumes, etc. The splendid scenery of the East, too, and its luxuriant and rank vegetation, excited the highest admiration of Greek writers, who described, in almost oriental poetry, "the bamboo, each of whose joints might serve for a many-oared keel," and the "Indian fig-tree, taking root by its branches, and furnishing a leafy canopy like a tent, supported by pillars." The campaigns of Alexander gave rise, also, to comparisons and contrasts of the African races of Egypt, the Arians beyond the Tigris, and the ancient Indian aborigines, of dark color, but not woolly-haired, etc.

After the fall of the Macedonian Empire, it devolved upon the Ptolemies of Egypt to enlarge the field of cosmogony, which had been handed over to them. The three first of the name, whose reigns occupied a century, guided by a passion for science, established institutions of learning, and strenuously urged the extension of foreign trade. The result of their encouragement was, that, even before Carthage was overshadowed by the Roman power, Alexandria had risen to the rank of the greatest commercial mart on earth, and had discovered by far the best route from the Mediterranean to the southeastern coasts of Africa, Arabia and India. This route was admirably seized upon, and adopted by the Ptolemies, as that which had been marked out by the hand of Nature herself. Even after the reduction of Egypt, Alexandria continued to occupy an important place in the geography and history of the Roman Empire.

The important extension of the sphere of knowledge pertaining to external nature, and to the different countries of the world, under the Ptolemies, was mainly owing, says Humboldt, to the caravan trade in the interior of Africa, by Cyrene and the Oases; to the conquests in Ethiopia and Arabia Felix, under Ptolemy Eurgetes; to the maritime trade with the whole of the western peninsula of India, from the Gulf of Barygazza, along the shores of Canara and Malabar, to the Brahminical Sanctuaries of the Promontory of Comorin; and to the large island of Ceylon. Nearchus had already materially contributed to the advance of nautical knowledge, by his laborious five months' voyage along the coasts of Gedrosia and Caramania, between Pattala, at the mouths of the Indus and the Euphrates.

Claudius, who belongs to the age of Theodosius the Great, when Roman literature and civilization was in its decline, leaves us a beautiful panegyric upon the extent of the Roman power:

> Haec est in gremium victos quæ sola recepit
> Humanumque genus communi nomine fovit
> Matris, non dominæ, ritu; cives que vocavit

Quos domuit, nexuque pro longinaque revénxit.
Hujus pacificis debemus moribus omnes
Quod veluti patriis regionibus utilur hospes.

This empire, which, according to Gibbon, embraced 1,600,000 square miles, and stretched 3,000 miles from the Atlantic to the Euphrates, and 2,000 miles from the northern borders of Dacia to the tropic of Cancer, though less than the Chinese Empire under the dynasty of Tsin, and the Eastern Han, less than the Mongolian Empire under Ghengis Khan, or even the present Russian Empire, included a greater number of fruitful, wealthy, and favorably-situated countries, than any other ancient or modern government, excepting the Spanish monarchy in its palmiest colonial days.* Expeditions were sent out to the remote north, and to the amber lands, to Arabia, and the territory of Garamantes. Greek geometricians were employed by Augustus to make admeasurements of the empire, and in order to ensure entire accuracy, the co-operation of all the governors of provinces was required. Roman roads branched in every direction of the compass, and the Emperor Adrian is said to have undertaken an extensive journey, to examine personally the condition of all the provinces, which undertaking required about eleven years. Fused with the Greek, the Latin tongue became, very naturally, one of the most powerful means for the amalgamation and union of nations; for harmonizing men, according to Pliny, and in giving them one common country. In the reign of the Emperor Claudius the embassy of Rachias of Ceylon came to Rome by way of Egypt; and under Marcus Aurelius Roman legates visited the Chinese court, having come by sea by the route of Tunkin.*

After the fall of Rome, the Arabians seemed alone to preserve and perpetuate a knowledge of the physical sciences, and more than any other people, interested themselves in their advancement. Emerging from the interior of the Arabian peninsula, after a life of exclusion for thousands of years, this remarkable people came for the first time into contact with nations of a more advanced grade, and by a sudden and unprecedented movement, subjugated everything before them, from the pillars of Hercules and the Indus to the Hindoo-Coosh; maintaining relations of commerce, in the ninth century, with the north of Europe, Madagascar, Eastern Africa, India and China. Their migratory hordes were compared to groups of clouds, which the winds will soon break up and scatter. After the Asiatic conquest, the Arabs spread in seventy years over Egypt, Cyrene and Carthage, through the whole of northern Asia to the far remote western peninsula of Iberia.

In the centuries which are known as those of maritime discovery, and which witnessed in rapid succession the most brilliant acquisitions of empires beyond the seas, we find Europe electrified with a new life. As early as 1525, when the astronomical and geographical congress was held for the purpose of settling the conflicting claims of

* Humboldt.

Portugal and Spain, the outlines of the new world were clearly traced from Terra del Fuego to the coast of Labrador. On the western coast, Cabrello had penetrated to Monterey, in 1543, and Ferreto conducted the same expedition to Cape Oxford, in the 43d degree of latitude.

The western world had not, however, been a sealed volume to Europe until the time of Columbus, as was for a long time supposed. From the minute and detailed particulars of the voyages and discoveries made by the Northmen, collected and published a few years ago by the Royal Society of Antiquities at Copenhagen, we are enabled to trace the progress of discovery to periods far more remote. Leïf, the son of Eric the Red, was among the first of these Northmen who discovered the continent of the new world, having reached it in the latitude of Boston, afterwards in Nova Scotia and Newfoundland, about the year 1000. He was preceded fourteen years before by Herjufsson, who had perceived the coast, but without effecting a landing. Earlier by more than a century than this, the Norwegians were driven to Iceland in their course to the Faroe Islands, which the Irish had discovered. The first *settlement* was made about the year 875, and the colonization of Iceland extended through Greenland to the new continent.

The discovery of the main land therefore by Leïf, was 125 years later than the settlement of Iceland, and the first American colonies which were planted by him, were upon that part of our coast which lies between New-York and Boston, and embraces parts of Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, and was known as *Vinland.* The colonists contended unceasingly with a warlike race of the Esquimaux, and in 1121, the Bishop of Greenland undertook a religious mission for their conversion. Boundary pillars were erected on the eastern shores of Baffin's Bay, whose Punic inscriptions bear the date of 1135. From this point, 600 years before the discoveries of Parry and Ross, they visited Barrow's Straits, in the prosecution of their fisheries, and, in 1347, a ship was sent from Greenland to Nova Scotia, to collect building timber.

Thus far have we not wandered beyond the domain of *authentic* history, though many interesting traditions carry us back to times even far more remote. The Northmen heard in Vinland of races south of the Chesapeake, who were *white*, wore white garments, and walked in processions, and the Icelandic chronicles especially speak of the coasts between Virginia and Florida as the *land of the white men.* Who were these white races? The conjecture that they were of Irish origin has received much countenance since the time of Raleigh, and it is even pretended that some of the aborigines exhibited strong traces of *a Celtic* original—that the *native* Virginians spoke pure Celtic, that the Gælic salutation has been heard amongst them—and that Owen Chapelane, in 1669, saved himself from the hands of the Tuscaroras, who were about to scalp him, by addressing them in the Gælic dialect. If this *Irish* theory be received, it would seem that the nation, baffled at first in the possession of the continent,

are determined to take it at last by the interminable flood of emigration they are continually urging to its shores.

It must be considered remarkable, that discoveries so great as those of the Northmen in the new world, should never have been heard of in the south of Europe, as late as the time of Columbus; and it is very difficult to resist the impression, that that great captain, who acknowledges himself he visited Iceland in 1477, collected there many of the traditions which put him upon the path of eventual discovery. The southwest course which his vessels took from the Canaries, evinces, that at best his information must have been very vague and confused, if obtained in this quarter.

Europe, for some time previous to the movements of Columbus, had been undergoing a rapid progression, in the various explorations by sea, the discovery of the magnet, gunpowder, the printing press, etc., etc., and was beginning to develop in the highest activity all the elements of intellectual life. Everything had prepared the way for the discovery of the continent, "the rapid determination of its configuration, the passage around the southern point of Africa to India, and finally, the circumnavigation of the globe, events that, in thirty years, so indefinitely extended a knowledge of the regions of the earth."

I cannot, gentlemen, conclude this discourse so satisfactorily as in the language of the great Humboldt: "Where, in the history of nations, can we find an epoch similar to that in which events so fraught with important results as the discovery and first colonization of America, the passage to the East Indies around the Cape of Good Hope, and Magellan's first circumnavigation, occurring simultaneously with the highest perfection of art, with the attainment of intellectual and religious freedom, and with the sudden enlargement of the earth and the heavens."

"We would simply draw attention to the fact, that since this period a new and more vigorous activity of the mind and feelings, animated by bold aspirations and hopes, which can scarcely be frustrated, has gradually penetrated through all grades of civil society—that the scanty population of one-half of the globe, especially in the portions opposite to Europe, has favored the settlement of colonies, which have been converted by their extent and position into independent states, enjoying unlimited power in the choice of their mode of free government; and finally—that religious reform, the precursor of great political revolutions, could not fail to pass through the different phases of its development, in a portion of the earth which had become the asylum of all forms of faith, and of the most different views regarding divine things. The daring enterprise of the Genoese seamen, is the first link in the immeasurable chain of these great events. The new world, continuously brought nearer to Europe during the last half century, by means of commercial intercourse, has exercised an important influence on the political institutions, the ideas and feelings of those nations who occupy the eastern shores of the Atlantic, the boundaries of which appear to be constantly brought nearer to one another."

GENTLEMEN OF THE CLIOSOPHIC SOCIETY :

The paper which I have had the honor of reading before you, is at best but a crude and ill-digested collection of facts, by no means deserving of the kind attention you have vouchsafed to it, and falling very far short of what, in my own opinion, the subject and the occasion required. Circumstances I cannot now explain, reduced the time of preparation down to a very few days, notwithstanding the ample notice from you, and my own urgent desire to elaborate something which should be worthy of your approbation. It is too late now to do more than to crave your indulgence, and to express the hope, that although little originality characterizes the effort, and nothing has been added by it to the sum of our knowledge, it will not be altogether without influence in drawing your closer attention to what I must regard a most inviting, and, as yet, for a large part, unexplored field of research and study.

I thank you for the honor of this appointment. You have surrounded me here with associations, and recalled memories I would not exchange for a diadem. This venerable building, the shady campus without*—these halls, this very stand I occupy, the occasional faces I recognize in the audience,—your society, (whose badges I was so proud to wear,) and a part of which I cannot but feel myself now,—everything wears the aspect of an old and cherished friendship, a something I have seen a thousand times in dreams, and never recalled in waking hours but with mingled emotions of pain and pleasure. Yes, gentlemen, this is consecrated, classical ground to me, and I tread it with high and holy feelings, and softly, lest I should invade upon some sacred repose of past joys, and earnest, hopeful, youthful affections. How often, in the disturbed scenes of active life, has my fancy fondly reverted hither, as to a place of flowers in perennial bloom, an oasis the more attractive as the deserts grew and deepened around !

Ten years ago, for it is nearly that, though it seems but yesterday, I occupied this stand as now, but with how different feelings !—with what a different world before me from what has been actually realized !—with what aims and prospects, that, like shadows, have been pursued only to flit the further away !—Yes, ten years is a woful corrective of the vagaries of boyish enthusiasm, and in its flight has often recalled to my memory what was a favorite expression of my lamented early friend, guide, and preceptor, the late President Brantly, of this College, whose memory I fondly cherish—"*anticipation* is ever running before, to muddy the stream in which *reality* will drink."

But the cycle of life must be fulfilled ; and what, after all, are ten years when we have passed them, but a speck on the vision, whilst we marvel that so little remains of the thoughts, the feelings and actions, the joys and the sorrows, and the clustering events, whose number must have been myriads, to have filled up such a space ; yet only here

* Alas ! no longer "shady,"—the ruthless hand of *improvement* has destroyed those fair trees.

and there, like islands on the pathless ocean, we may trace the outlines of a few scattering ones, seen lingering still distant and obscure!

Yet, let me not discourage you, gentlemen, by one darkened picture of life. Youth is the season of flowers, and in its freshness and hopefulness, carries with it a charm and an inspiration. It is a season when images are graven strongest and deepest upon the heart, and when impressions are *indelibly* fixed. I would not break its mystic charm. Happy are you in all of its enjoyments. Happy in these classic shades, where the genial influences of philosophy and science may be shared in all their elevating and ennobling results, and where you may drink from every classic fountain, and, abstracted from the cares of the world, shape and fashion your character upon the best models that history can afford. I believe you will not be unmindful of these advantages; but, judging the future by the past, am rather assured you will emerge from these retreats with intelligences highly refined and cultivated, and with such stores of knowledge and well-established principles at command, as will enable you to perform faithfully the duties of life, which may be incumbent upon you in any and every sphere of action. Remember, that knowledge is not *alone* to be measured by its *practical* fruits, however considerable these may be, but that she has high and noble rewards for her votaries, though the successes of this world are all denied them. *Science and Philosophy must be cultivated for themselves!* "You are *unworthy* of the honors of the Academy," said the great D'Alembert to a student who confessed he had prepared and elaborated a learned thesis, simply for the attainment of those honors. The cry of the silversmiths who earned their bread in fabricating the shrines of the temple, "Long live Diana of Ephesus," which ascended even higher than the voice of the votaries of the goddess, furnishes no inapt parallel of the veneration which the modern utilitarians profess to have for knowledge! I would counsel you against their degrading example.

In bidding you adieu, gentlemen, and departing again from my native state for the distant home, and the warm and generous friends I have found at the mouth of the great father of waters, I cannot but feel many, and deep, and poignant regrets. Who that has been reared in this gallant, noble state, has ever been anxious to renounce his inheritance, or to exchange it for a mess of pottage? I thank God the state has taught her children in a different and a better school, and that when she sends them abroad to enter into the service, or to claim the citizenship of other communities, they go with the lesson upon their hearts, that an ardent and undying affection for *her* can never, in virtuous estimation, be inconsistent with the *new allegiance* they acquire; but that, on the contrary, the absence of such affection constitutes a species of *moral treason*, alike at war with the laws of nature and of God!

To me it is the proudest heritage I can claim, that my first breath was drawn in such a state—a state which has ever been distinguished for the incorruptible virtue, patriotism, and intelligence of her people, and never yet has had upon her escutcheon one stain in the lengthened period of her history;—a generous and noble state, God

bless her!—which knows no compromises with dishonor, and treasures her children to her heart as her most precious jewels, whether, like Butler, or even the meanest private of her regiment, they fell covered with honor on the fields of Mexico, or, like Calhoun, full of years and illustrious achievements, they have gone out in death on a sea of glory. Such a state may be poor in cotton bales, but, thank God! she is still rich in spirit, and erect in the consciousness of an untarnished reputation. The eyes of the world are upon her now: may she neither falter in the path of *duty*, nor yet, in the enthusiasm of her noble impulses, seem to incur the charge of rashness and impetuosity; but whatever her course or her destiny, whether in sunshine or in storm, the heart of every true Carolinian, as of every true born MAN, whoever or wherever he may be, will beat responsive and in unison with her own!

"Land of my sires! what mortal hand
Can e'er untie the filial band,
That knits me to thy rugged strand!
* * * * *
And thus I love *thee* better still,
Even in extremity of ill!"

ART. VII.—TURKEY AND ITS DESTINY.*

HISTORY, COMMERCE, RESOURCES, ARTS, PROSPECTS OF TURKEY, ETC.

THE recent insurrectionary attempts on the part of the inhabitants of Aleppo, to sever the province of Syria from the authority of the Sultan, as well as the importance of promoting our commercial interests in Turkey, have been deemed sufficient reasons for inducing us to write the present article. It may not be improper, by way of introduction, to give a brief sketch of the rise and progress of the Ottoman Empire, and the causes which led to its decline. The conquest of Prusa, A. D. 1299, by Othman, the son of a Turcoman chieftain, in the service of Aladdin, the Sultan of Iconium, is the true date of its foundation. After reigning for twenty-seven years, the reins of government fell into the hands of his son, Orcan, who redeemed the lives and property of the Christian subjects by a ransom of 30,000 crowns, and converted the city into a Mohammedan capital. He soon after took the city of Nice, and sold the sacrilegious plunder at Constantinople. After conquering the Emperor Andronicus, he subdued the whole province or kingdom as far as the shores of the Bosphorus and the Hellespont. He married the Christian Princess, Theodora, and alternately the ally of the Latins and the Greeks, he steadily pursued his own aggrandizement. He was succeeded by his son Murad or Amurath, who subdued the whole of Thrace, from the Hellespont to Mount

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* Turkey and its Destiny; the Result of Journeys made in 1847 and 1848, in that country, by Charles Macfarlane. J. Lawrence Smith, M. D., Report on Emery in Turkey, etc.

Haemus. He perished by the hand of a foreign assassin, and the renowned Bajazet, surnamed the "Thunderbolt," reigned in his stead. His reign is considered one of the most splendid epochs in the Turkish annals. He pursued his conquests in every direction. Not content with their equivocal submission, he resolved to annex by force their territories to his empire. After stripping his brother Emirs of their hereditary possessions, he extended his invasions into Asia Minor on the east, and crossing the Danube on the west, he imposed a regular form of servitude on the Servians and Bulgarians, and sought new subjects and new enemies in the heart of Moldavia. In the great battle of Nicopolis, he defeated a confederate army of a hundred thousand Christians, from the west of Europe, who had proudly boasted that if the sky should fall, they could uphold it on their lances. His career of conquest was checked by Tamerlane, the Mogul Emperor, who, discovering his inordinate ambition, and that he was meditating the conquest of Syria and Egypt, sought an occasion of quarrel, which soon resulted in a desperate battle, in which Bajazet was completely defeated. He was succeeded by Mohammed I., who died in 1421, and bequeathed an undivided empire to his successor, Murad or Amurath II. In his turn he was succeeded by the Conqueror of Constantinople, the accomplished and execrable Mohammed II. We cannot forego the pleasure of quoting the graphic description which Gibbon gives of this memorable siege:

"On the 6th of April, 1453, the imperial standard of the besiegers was flouted before the gate of St. Romanus, and, after a siege of fifty-four days, that Constantinople, which had defied the power of Chosroes the Chagan, and the khalifs, was irretrievably subdued by the arms of Mohammed II. Her empire only had been subverted by the Latins; her religion was trampled in the dust by her Moslem conquerors. From the first hour of the memorable 29th of May, disorder and rapine prevailed in Constantinople, till the eighth hour of the same day, when the Sultan himself pressed through the gate of St. Romanus. He was attended by the viziers, bashaws, and guards, each of whom (says a Byzantine historian) was robust as Hercules, dexterous as Apollo, and equal in battle to any ten of the race of ordinary mortals. The conqueror gazed with satisfaction and wonder on the strange, though splendid appearance, of the domes and palaces, so dissimilar from the style of oriental architecture. In the hippodrome or *atmeidan*, his eye was attracted by the twisted column of the three serpents, and, as a trial of his strength, he shattered with his iron mace or battle-axe the under-jaw of one of those monsters, which, in the eyes of Turks, were the idols or talismans of the city. At the principal door of St. Sophia, he alighted from his horse, and entered the dome; and such was his jealous regard for the monument of his glory, that on observing a zealous Mussulman in the act of breaking the marble pavement, he admonished him with his cimeter, that if the spoil and captives were granted to the soldiers, the public and private buildings had been reserved for the prince. By his command, the metropolis of the Eastern Church was transformed into a mosque; the rich and portable instruments

of superstition had been removed, the crosses were thrown down, and the walls, which were covered with images and rosaries, were washed and purified, and restored to a state of naked simplicity. On the same day, or on the ensuing Friday, the *muezzin* or crier ascended the most lofty turret, and proclaimed the *izan*, or public invitation, in the name of God and his prophet; the *iman* preached, and Mahomet II. performed the namaz of prayer and thanksgiving on the great altar where the Christian mysteries had so lately been celebrated before the last of the Cæsars. From St. Sophia, he proceeded to the august, but desolate mansion, of a hundred successors of the great Constantine, but which in a few hours had been stripped of the pomp of royalty. A melancholy reflection on the vicissitudes of human greatness forced itself on his mind, and he repeated an elegant distich of Persian poetry: 'The spider has woven his web in the imperial palace; and the owl hath sung her watch-song on the towers of Afrasiab.' Yet his mind was not satisfied, nor did the victory seem complete, till he was informed of the fate of Constantine, whether he had escaped or been made a prisoner, or had fallen in battle. Two Janizaries claimed the honor and reward of his death. The body, under a heap of slain, was discovered by the golden eagles embroidered on his shoes. The Greeks acknowledged, with tears, the head of their late emperor; and, after exposing the bloody trophy, Mahomet bestowed on his rival the honors of a decent funeral."

We might trace the long line of Sultans, who waded their way through slaughter to the supreme authority; but the details would be uninteresting, and our space is limited. Those who believe, with the Bible, that the human heart is deceitful above all things, and desperately wicked, and with Hobbes, that war is the natural condition of man, will find abundant evidences of it, if they will read the black and bloody annals of Turkish history. With a very few exceptions, every new Sultan was compelled to establish his empire by strangling one, and sometimes all the members of his family, and by such other acts of perfidy and crime as jealousy and ambition, and all the base qualities of our nature, are always ready to suggest, in the attainment of illegitimate objects.

One of the main causes of the rise and progress of the Ottoman Empire, is to be attributed to the fallen and degraded condition of the Eastern dynasties, the quarrels and divisions between the Latins and the Greeks, and her vast superiority over her Christian neighbors. The doctrine of fatality, which is the basis of their religion, seems to have inspired the Turks with supernatural zeal, and their military skill and prowess were an overmatch for those who fought under the banner of the Cross. The ancient modes of warfare, by legion and phalanx, which were adopted with great effect by the Greeks, were abandoned for the more wild and desultory system, congenial to a ferocious and barbarous people. The ability and accomplishments of many of their Sultans, must also be considered among the chief causes which raised the Ottoman Empire to such distinction. In point of learning and the cultivation of letters they

were in advance of the Goths, who were deprived of those advantages by the circumscribed limits in which literature was confined within the precincts of monasteries. Colleges and libraries were attached to their mosques, and the works of the Greek philosophers were translated into their language. In agriculture, navigation, and the mechanic arts, they derived considerable knowledge from their intercourse with their Christian neighbors, against whom they used their information by menacing their capital with destruction.

The causes which led to the decline of the Ottoman Empire are manifold; but we have only time and space enough to glance at a few of them. Unquestionably, the root of the evil lies in their despotic form of government, which imposes a check upon the free and generous exercise of those faculties which alone can make a people truly great. They do not claim, like the older monarchies of Europe, to have received their authority from Heaven; but, by what they conceive to be a much better title, *by the divine right of physical force.* What is obtained by force, must be maintained by force. While we see that in all the European States, where the leaven of republicanism has been infused, and the people (though not yet permitted to choose their own rulers) are rapidly advancing in every species of improvement, Turkey and Italy are sinking into insignificance and contempt. Wherever the soul is fettered by superstition, and priests are permitted to regulate the consciences of men, pride, bigotry and misery, are sure to follow in the train. Those stinking weeds, which spring up spontaneously in the heart of fallen man, can only be eradicated by allowing the soul to have free intercourse with its Maker, its Purifier and Redeemer.*

In a commercial point of view, the principal cause of Turkish decline is attributed to the discovery of navigation to India by the Cape of Good Hope, in the early part of the seventeenth century. For a long time previous to this, free intercourse between Venice and the Syrian and Egyptian ports, had been fostered by the Sultan, to the aggrandizement of his empire. But the trade which had been carried on between India and China and the Porte, by the way of the Persian Gulf and the Red Sea, was converted into the new chan-

* Perhaps our notions on government may seem heretical. We must candidly avow that we do not believe in the divine right of kings, and have no great confidence in the effect of *moral suasion*—but we have great faith in the *great doctrine of necessity*, and the *divine* (or, it may be *infernal*) *right of physical force.* The principles of love and fear are brought to bear upon all human societies and individuals, as bonds to hold them together. But what could love avail without the terrors of punishment? This holds good between all forms of government, whether despotic or republican. "Power," as it has been wisely said, "is always stealing from the many to the few;" and whether it be in the hands of one individual, as in the case of a *despot*, or in that of a cabinet, with its creatures and minions, matters not. The limits of power should always be strictly defined, and when these limits are encroached upon, it is the right and duty of the party governed to see that its own rights are maintained; and of these rights it is the best judge. Who ever heard of the wolf's letting go his hold on the lamb because of its bleating? Such is the nature of despotism, under whatever forms and disguises it may appear, that it is in vain to expect *a sense of returning justice* to induce it to relax its grasp.

nel of conveyance, to the great detriment of the national strength of Turkey, and the diminishing of her importance in the political system of Europe. Internal dissensions, also, tended to impede the transportation of commodities, which, together with the bad condition of their public roads, inflicted a heavy blow upon their agricultural and manufacturing interests. The natural and necessary consequence of these calamities was an impoverishment of the treasury and a reduction of the military resources, upon which the empire depended for the maintenance of its dignity and independence, and even of its support. Travellers, who have visited the Ottoman dominions in Asia Minor, say that the desolation is almost appalling. Instead of splendid palaces and glittering temples, nothing but ruins and cemeteries are now to be seen. Those stupendous canals and reservoirs, which fertilized the soil of Palestine and the surrounding country, are now in a state of wretched decay. The inhabitants of many of their villages have been compelled to fly their country to avoid the incursions of robbers and the terrors of starvation. Many of their most magnificent cities are fast hastening to the condition of those doomed cities of old, Babylon, Nineveh, Tyre and Sidon, and, as if Providence had determined to destroy them, root and branch, and to leave no vestige of their existence, that most terrible calamity, the earthquake, is swallowing up all that was once the pride and admiration of the world.

"Westward the star of empire takes its way."

Ichabod—thy glory hath for ever departed, is written on the crumbling ruins of the east; and it may be safely predicted that the time is not far distant when the very "owls and bats" will be compelled to seek other places of refuge.

Dr. Smith* was sent to Turkey by the United States government, in 1846, at the request of the Sultan, for the purpose of examining into the adaptedness of the different parts of the Turkish empire to the improved culture of cotton adopted in the United States. The appointment was made, because it was known that he had devoted some attention to the circumstances of climate, soil, temperature and meteorological peculiarities that affect the growth of cotton. Another individual (Dr. Davis) was sent with Dr. Smith, for the purpose of carrying out the agricultural details; but as we know little of the character or result of his labors, which lasted for about a year and a-half, we must be excused for saying nothing more with regard to them. On his arrival in Turkey, Dr. Smith's attention was taken entirely from cotton, and devoted to the development of the mineral resources of such parts of Turkey as are easily accessible to

* Dr. Smith is a native of Charleston, South Carolina, but is now a citizen of New-Orleans, and a Professor of Chemistry in the University of Louisiana. After his contract with the Sultan had expired, he returned to his native country. The Sultan conferred on him the order of *Nichan-Iftihar*, in testimony of the distinguished services which he had rendered in developing the geological resources of Turkey. The French Academy of Sciences made a favorable report on his "Memoir on Emery," and ordered it to be published in the "*Receuil des Memoires des Savans etrangeres.*"

the capital, and consequently his explorations were principally in the western part of Asia Minor. His discoveries, during a residence of little more than three years, were of considerable importance to the Turkish government, and his development of the emery formation of Asia Minor of great general value to the manufacturing world. The most important of his discoveries, were an extensive coal bed near the Dardanelles, large deposits of sulphur, chrome ore, meerschaum, iron ore, and emery; but, as most of these require an exercise of energy, and a proper *application* of capital, (which is not easily to be obtained in Turkey,) it is to be feared that they will not be turned to the same advantage as they would be elsewhere, or under another government. The mineral resources of Turkey are very great. Her copper mines are among the first in the world; her coal formation is tolerably extensive, particularly on the shores of the Black sea. The deposits of iron are immense, and her lead and silver mines of some importance. Antimony is found in great abundance, as well as sulphur, chrome, arsenic and emery. Turkey and Greece have the monopoly of emery, and none of it is now used in the arts that does not come from one or the other of these countries. As the proper operation of mining depends upon energy and the economical application of capital by *individual* effort, it is much to be feared that Turkey reaps but a small portion of the benefits she might derive from that resource—for the government undertakes to monopolize all mines. We regret that our space will not permit us to do more at present than to make a brief extract from that portion of the "memoir" which treats of the commercial consideration of emery.

"The use of emery in the arts is of very ancient date, a fact proved by works on hard stones, that could not have been executed except by emery or minerals of that nature. It is very probable that emery coming from the localities which have been mentioned, was used in former ages by the Greeks and Romans. For example, the locality of *Gumuch-Dagh* is immediately by the ancient Magnesia on the Meandre, and between Ephesus and Tralles, twelve miles from each of these cities, and the same distance from Tyria; in all of these cities the arts flourished, and none more than that of cutting hard stones, if we are allowed to judge from the specimens of their skill in this art, that have come down to us. Nevertheless, the quantity of emery formerly employed was insignificant in comparison to the quantity now required, more particularly within the last twenty years, since the use of plate glass has been extended. The annual consumption at the present time is about *fifteen hundred tons*.

"For various reasons the island of Naxos furnished for several centuries almost exclusively the emery used in the arts, as much for the facility with which it was obtained, as for the uniformity of its quality. The emery exists in very great abundance on this island, and notwithstanding the quantity already extracted, there still remain immense deposits of it.

"The price of this substance at the end of the last century, was from forty to fifty dollars a ton, and between 1820 and 1835, it was at times even less. About this period the monopoly of the Naxos emery was purchased from the Greek government by an English merchant, who so regulated the quantity given to commerce, that the price gradually rose from forty to

one hundred and forty dollars the ton, a price at which it was sold in 1846 and 1847. It was at this time that I commenced examining and developing the emery foundations of Asia Minor, until then unknown; and after making a report to the Turkish government, the monopoly of the emery of Turkey was sold to a mercantile house in Smyrna, and since then the price of this article has diminished to fifty and seventy dollars the ton, according to the quality. I speak of the prices in the English market."

Constantinople, or Stamboul, as it is sometimes called, the capital of the Ottoman Empire, is one of the most magnificent and beautiful cities in Europe. If its suburbs are included, its dimensions are greater than those of either London or Paris; and (our own crescent city not excepted) is the most favorably situated for commercial advantages of any city in the world. By means of the canals of the Dardanelles and the White and Black seas, it formerly carried on the most extensive trade of any of the eastern ports. These canals are called its doors. When the wind blows from the north, no entrance can be made through the southern door, and *vice versa*. Its principal imports from the Black Sea are corn, iron, timber, tallow and furs, and cotton stuffs, yarn, tin, woolen, silks, watches and jewelry, paper, glass, indigo, &c., &c., from various parts of Europe. Corn and coffee are imported from Alexandria, and sugar is brought from the East and West Indies. The principal merchants are the English, French, and other Europeans, who are called *Franks*.

As far back as 1825, the Sublime Porte made overtures to the American government for the negociation of a treaty between the two countries. The treaty, however, was not ratified until 1830. At that time considerable trade was carried on between Boston, New-York and Smyrna, mostly in American cotton cloths. Some vessels had even gone up to Constantinople, and our government was desirous of obtaining for them the right of entering the Black Sea, where they could compete with the British commerce. Mr. J. P. Brown, the drogoman of the American Legation, who has resided there for many years—in an able article on the American commerce of the Black Sea, suggests many valuable hints on our commercial relations with Turkey. We have since had the pleasure of conversing with him on the subject, while on a visit to this city with his excellency, *Amin Bey*. He thinks that if we would establish a commercial or consular agent at Trebizond, who would inform himself thoroughly of the trade of the Turkish ports, it would be of incalculable advantage to our commercial prospects. The English have adopted this system for a long time, and with eminent success. They select for this appointment merchants who have been unfortunate in business, but of good moral character, and extensive experience in the commerce and language of the east, with which they become familiar after a few years residence. They are permitted to conduct business on their own account, and receive a small salary for their services. In this manner the British government is enabled to be correctly informed with regard to the vessels of all nations, and the value of their cargoes, as well as the amount of the

exports from Turkey. It is believed that the adoption of this plan has placed it in their power to obtain a more accurate account of the statistics of the country than the Sublime Porte itself. Our cotton trade in Turkey is considerably diminished by the cheapness of the English manufactures; and although ours is admitted to be the finest article, the indigent circumstances of the people compel them to buy an inferior quality, if they can get it at a lower price. The commercial policy of the Turkish government is based upon maxims of practical wisdom. It cherishes no principles of protection in favor of agriculture against commerce, nor of commerce *vs.* agriculture. It leaves these two branches of public industry to regulate themselves. It has no discriminating duties, and all objects of traffic pay *ad valorem* duties, or duties based upon their respective values in the Ottoman dominions. These values are established approximately, once in seven or ten years, by a commission of merchants selected of equal numbers, from among the chief merchants of the contracting power, and of officers of the Sultan's government. Each legation of foreign powers at the Porte has a separate tariff except that of the United States. Each legation appoints a commission to estimate the value of the objects or articles produced in its own country, and adds to it all those of all other legations; so that the British tariff contains all the articles of English produce and manufacture, as well as those of every other country. As the American legation has never been authorized by its government to draw up a tariff of its own commerce, American merchants in Turkey are compelled to be satisfied with the tariff of the "most favored country," which is for them, at least, the English nation. England is wide awake to her own commercial interests, and as she knows that the American Legation has no tariff of its own, she comprises all American manufactures and produce in her tariff, and fixes an amount of duty for them far beyond their real value. The British legation well knows that her merchants will not import our American corn or cotton goods from Boston, and it establishes for these articles an excessive amount of duties for the benefit of the *American* importers! This fact, though frequently brought to the notice of the Department of State, has not as yet attracted the attention which it deserves.

When our treaty was made with the Sublime Porte in 1830, our trade with Odessa and Constantinople was very limited. We procured hides, and even some *barley* from the former place, and to the latter we carried a considerable quantity of coffee, sugar, and cotton goods of our own manufacture. The only drawback to this trade then was the frequent and long detention by adverse winds of vessels at the entrance to the Straits of the Dardanelles. This detention often caused our vessels to discharge their cargoes at Marseilles, Trieste, or Smyrna, into cheaper bottoms under Greek, Austrian, or Italian flags, and return with cargoes for some port in Europe, or in the United States. This difficulty, still, in some measure exists, though we have recently seen it stated in the papers that a number of tugs are soon to be stationed at the Dardanelles, for the purpose of towing vessels through them. The English government, for some

years, opposed the formation of the treaty of commerce between the Porte and the American government. "It was apprehensive that our commerce with the Black Sea would increase." Its own trade was at that time very limited—not more than ten or twelve ships annually—while it now has some 500, and we have not a *single one!*

Up to 1838, the Sublime Porte granted monopolies of different articles of commerce to individuals for divers periods, and foreign merchants were in the habit of availing themselves of this system to purchase all the produce of one or more provinces of the empire for their own benefit exclusively. This often proved ruinous to the fair trader, whose calculations and contracts were often annihilated by the foresight of his more active and influential competitor. To abolish such an injurious system, the British Embassy agreed to pay a higher amount of export and import dues, in case the Porte would for ever abolish monopolies. Up to that time, (1838,) all articles of export and import had paid only 3 per cent. *ad valorem* duties. The British Embassy agreed to add 9 to the export, and 2 per cent. to the imports. All produce in the Sultan's dominions pays him, as *Caliph*, a tithe of the whole. The provinces are also taxed irregularly for the support of the government post and the roads, or indeed for any other casual outlay which the province may need. These, however, do not amount to a great deal, and taxation is very light in every part of Turkey. The agriculturist is the principal sufferer: 22 per cent. of his produce, and sometimes 10 per cent. more, is taken by the Sultan and the customer; whilst the merchant, and even the manufacturer, pays little or nothing.

Another of the greatest evils of the Turkish system is, that no land or property tax is levied in the capital. This is in accordance with an ancient oriental custom in favor of the residence of the prince or sovereign. Much of the revenue of the empire is carried to Constantinople, and there expended in the erection of magnificent barracks, palaces, hospitals, mausoleums, mosques, and, of late years, some schools—all at the expense of the people of the provinces, who neither enjoy nor care for them.

The commerce of Constantinople alone may be calculated as being, annually, somewhat as follows:

British vessels	1,000	arrivals.	Neapolitan vessels	60	arrivals.
Austrian "	2,000	"	Russian "	4,000	"
French "	100	"	Belgian "	30	"
Sardinian "	2,500	"	Hanseatic towns	20	"
American "	none, (or 1 in 2 years.)		Ottoman " (small and great.)	5,000	"
Swedish "	10	"	Prussian "	20	"
Danish "	6	"	Portuguese "	none	
Greek "	3,000	"	Spanish "	4	"
				17,750	

Calculating these at 100 tons each, it would give about 1,775,000 tons; and allowing ten men to each vessel, there would be employed

near 177,500 men engaged in this trade.* This is, however, much below the correct estimate, for there is a very extensive coast trade carried on in small craft under Frank or Turkish flags. There are at present some 50 or 60 large steamers running between Constantinople and other ports of the empire and Europe. A line now runs between

Constantinople and	Marseilles	every ten days.
"	Trieste	"
"	Southampton	1 per month.
"	Trebizond	2 per week.
"	Odessa	1 per week.
"	The Danube	"
"	Smyrna	"
"	Nicomedia and Gemlik	2 per week.
"	Beyrout in Syria	every ten days.

Two steamers ply upon the Bosphorus and to the "Prince's Island" daily, and some are employed in towing vessels in the harbor and to the Black Sea.

The English manufacturers have succeeded in manufacturing cotton goods of a lighter, and consequently of a cheaper quality than those imported into Turkey in 1831. In this way they have driven ours entirely out of the market, and the midland countries of Asia Minor, Georgia, Circassia, and all Persia, are now supplied from English looms, many of them bearing the stamp of American cottons. It is very common to hear American cotton goods cried out in the streets of Constantinople, made in Manchester.

Among the chief articles of import into this country from Turkey, is common wool, costing there about 10 or 11 cents per pound. On this there is a duty in the United States, of 2½ cents per pound; whilst English, French and Belgian coarse woollen cloths, and other articles made from the same wool, only pay in the United States forty per cent. In Europe, this wool pays nothing, or only enough for statistical purposes, and America is provided with goods by them, which she could easily manufacture for herself if her tariff would permit her. As it costs no more to keep a Merino sheep than one which produces a coarser wool, the former only are raised in European countries, and indeed in our own country. Thus the breeding of sheep requires no protective tariff. If there must, however, be a duty upon coarse wool, there should also be an equivalent one upon coarse cloths; or, if the latter are to be imported free, or nearly so, then let wool be equally favored. As it now stands, our tariff levies a tax upon all the coarse wools which we import from Turkey for the advantage of the foreign manufacturer. The owners of the water-looms in Lowell and Lawrence have a hard game to keep up against those of England; and if we ever regain our former trade with the Sultan's dominions in cotton goods and coarse wools, it will not be due to the fostering care of a wise tariff, but to the unceasing industry and enterprise of the American manufacturer.†

* As each vessel must arrive several times, this calculation is of course erroneous.—EDITOR.

† The kind of triumph we most favor.—EDITOR.

The word *Turkey* is said to be of barbarous import, signifying a wanderer or boor, and is derived from a Tartarian tribe who had their primitive home in *Turkestan*. Its population is estimated at about 12,000,000, consisting principally of Bulgarians, Bosniacs, Servians, Wallachians and other Sclavonic tribes, among whom are interspersed Albanians, Armenians, Jews, Gipsies and Franks, together with a promiscuous collection of foreigners from various portions of the globe. Of these sects, the Armenians are worthy of notice, as the most respectable of the Christian inhabitants of the Levant. For a long period, they were among the most warlike of the Asiatics; but after their conquest by the Persians, they exchanged their predatory life for the more peaceful labors of agriculture. This is considered a solitary instance in the history of nations, where a single individual has been able to change the whole character of the people, apparently by the simple fiat of his will. Like the Jews, they have no abiding home; many of them wander about in strange lands as traders, with whom it is said that Europeans and foreigners prefer to deal to any other of the Eastern sects. Soon after their subjugation, a colony was established at Jalfa, in the suburbs of Ispahan, and cultivated the growth of silk and other precious and costly commodities. "Of mild but persevering tempers; sober and patient in all their pursuits; honest, though skilful, in their dealings; accommodating in their habits and manners, without losing their individual character, they did not fail to acquire a reputation in every country in which they were directed by the enterprise of traffic." They are entirely absorbed in the pursuit of one object—the attainment of wealth. They have a language of their own, but care nothing about science and the cultivation of letters. They are fond of religious books, and purchase with avidity Bibles, furnished by the British and Foreign Bible Society. They have a patriarch at their head who favors the dissemination of all such works as may tend to make them contented with their lot. Like the Quakers, they are sober and industrious, and are greatly averse to war. They have a strong antipathy for the Greeks, on account of the religious differences that exist between them. "The Greeks despise them for their timidity; and arrogating to themselves exclusively the name of Christians, they seem to exclude the Armenians from the Christian community. The chief Armenians of Constantinople are, as well as the Jews, money-brokers, and they receive a small premium for examining the coin in the many bargains which go through their hands. They also buy the specie when cried down, and at a low price, and re-issue it in loans, with which they accommodate the Turks at the exorbitant interest of between twenty and thirty per cent. This is the chief source of their wealth. Many of their corn merchants are in good circumstances, and also their goldsmiths, as only a few of any other nation exercise that trade. There are Armenian surgeons, physicians and apothecaries. The greater number of bakers are of their nation. They are the chief house-builders, masons, joiners, turners, braziers and locksmiths; and as porters, they show themselves the most laborious, and, perhaps, the strongest people in the

world. Sixteen of them, eight before and eight behind, with their arms extended across on each other's shoulders, will carry a load of wine slung on four poles, throwing three hundred weight upon each man. They march in a quick lockstep, accompanying each pace with the groan of a pavior, and apparently in the last agony of exertion. The Armenians are also water-carriers, sherbet-sellers, boatmen, fishermen, silk-twisters, ribbon-weavers and tent-makers, and are accounted the best farriers and horsebreakers in the country. Their manners and customs mark them for a peculiar people. They have a superstition, that they can hold a visionary conversation with their parents and children after death. They are accustomed to gather around the tombs of their family accompanied by their priests, who offer up prayers for the souls of the departed. To perpetuate their memory, they erect *mausolea*, upon which they engrave the implements of trade by which he obtained his livelihood." But the most extraordinary circumstance is, that they are also fond of displaying how they came by their death; you therefore see on their tombs the effigies of men—sometimes hanging, sometimes strangled, and sometimes beheaded, with their heads in their hands. To account for their extraordinary fondness for displaying the infamous death of their friends, they say that no Armenian is ever executed for a real crime; but when a man has acquired a sufficient fortune to become an object of cupidity to the Turks, he is then on some pretext put to death, that his property may be confiscated; an executed man, therefore, implies only a man of wealth and consequence. This display is a bitter, but just satire on Turkish justice, though the Turks are not so stupid as to understand it. We will give a specimen of an epitaph:—

"You see my place of burial here;
I give my goods to the Robbers,
My soul to the Regions of Death,
The world I leave to God,
And my Blood I shed in the Holy Spirit;
You who meet my Tomb,
Say for me,
'Lord, I have sinned.'
1197."

Travellers, who have visited Turkey, and many who have been long resident there, give various, though generally concurrent testimony with regard to the character of the genuine Turk. We will select an extract from one who has had every opportunity of forming a correct opinion:

"The Turk is distinguished from other races by nothing so much as by his phlegmatic temperament, which generally disposes him to quiescence and indolence, and admits of many of the passive virtues, but which, under the influence of any powerful excitement, passes from insensibility into the most unrestrained violence and excess. This habitual sedateness and inertness, in combination with a latent energy, may serve to explain some of the inconsistencies in the national character and history. The Turk is habitually temperate;

he never tastes the forbidden juice, however, but he gets drunk. He is mild and grave, but when provoked he is infuriated. He has little fanaticism, but when his religious fervor is kindled, it becomes a brutal frenzy. He is not habitually cruel; he is sometimes generous and humane; but he is, of all men, the most remorseless in his cruelty. He will not luxuriate in the agonies of an enemy, and trample upon his victim; he has little taste for the more exquisite refinements of revenge; in this respect, notwithstanding some doubtful anecdotes, he displays less of the demon in his worst excesses than either Greek or Frank. But, then, he butchers with less compunction and with a more entire contempt of life; his eye never pities, and his heart never bleeds. Age or sex excites no commiseration in him, who, on a slight provocation, or on policy, dooms the wife of his bosom to the death of a cat, and his children to the bowstring. The same insensibility displays itself in the smooth-faced perfidy with which he can inveigle, in order to destroy, his unsuspecting victim—perhaps his old associate or guest. In fact, alike in his pleasures and in his cruelties, the Turk is a cold-blooded animal—coldly voluptuous and coldly cruel—deliberate alike in good and evil; less to be dreaded when choleric, than when concealing his emotions; not intolerant—far less so as a Moslem, than either Greek or Papist; not ungrateful, not inhospitable, not unkind to his dependents; not incapable of generosity and amiableness; but naturally arrogant, sensual and implacable; knowing no medium between the despot and the slave; too generally a hypocrite in all things—so much so as to please the Frank, whom he despises; in a word, exhibiting more or less the deadening and debasing effects of a despotic government, oriental prejudices, and a pharisaical and sensual creed."

In a political point of view, the condition of Turkey is truly deplorable. She continues to exist by sufferance, or by the forbearance of the other European powers. Since the battle of Navarino, when her fleet was destroyed, and Greece, soon after, rescued from her grasp, she has been reduced to the most abject state of dependence upon the mutual jealousy of Russia, France and England. The Janizaries, who were once the glory and bulwark of the empire, are now its most dangerous and formidable enemies. All despotic governments become military, and the soldiery, sooner or later, seize upon the sovereign power. A prince who is not subject to any law, and wishes to use arbitrary power in governing men, can only have slaves for subjects, who take no interest in his fate. As there is no law which confines his power within fixed limits, there is, also, none to protect him, and to serve as a foundation for his greatness. He inspires no confidence, and must very soon fear the people, by whom he knows he must be hated. As soon as the military, upon whom he depends, discovers its own strength, it becomes mutinous, and revolts, and as the prince is unable to repress them, it becomes insolent, and finally deposes its master. Without entering into the history of the causes which led to her present position, we will give a few of the *speculations* of a writer, who has recently visited the country, with a view to ascertain her resources. He is an English-

man, and we must make some allowances for his national prejudices, but we think that, in the main, he is plausible enough:

"In rushing into a war against all our old allies, can we rely upon our single new ally, France? Or will France enter upon such a war, with faith and full confidence in England? The notion that Russia is the natural ally of France, did not originate with M. Lamartine and the February Revolution; it dates many years back, and it is not confined to the romancing historian and poetical politician, and his school. Other French politicians entertain, at this moment, as a capital point of political faith, that France has more to gain from a close alliance with the great power of the North, than from any other league and combination; that by such an alliance, Austria, Prussia, and all the minor powers of the European Continent, would be crushed, and there would remain only two nations in Europe, France and Russia—England 'being cast off as a mere satellite in the ocean.' By the scheme of this alliance, Russia is, or was, to have Constantinople, the Black Sea, the Propontis, the Dardanelles, and the Adriatic; and the French to hold Spain, Italy, Belgium, the Rhine, and nearly all Germany. In a country where revolution is not yet over, and absolutely nothing fixed, a sudden change may happen, likely to bring into temporary power men quite capable of attempting to realize this gigantic and remorseless scheme. The condition of France alone is an obstacle and a warning against any alliance with her, and ought to be decisive of the question. On the other side, the French are very generally disposed to regard with distrust and suspicion our views and objects; many of their journalists, and other writers, are affirming, at this moment, that we are only looking to our own commercial interests and territorial aggrandizement; that we have an eye on Egypt, as a necessary link in the chain which connects us with India; that we are hungering after Candia and Cyprus, and all the rich and fertile islands of the Archipelago. * * * * * * I know that Russia has received insults difficult to be borne by a mighty power, when proceeding from so very weak, un-Christian, and wretched a country as Turkey. I am aware of the almost irresistible temptation which has been offered to the Emperor Nicholas for many years—but I am not aware that the Czar contemplates any invasion. The course pursued by the emperor should really seem to indicate that he contemplated no invasion or hostility whatsoever. But this is to be considered—the force which fled, after the rout of Arad, with Bem and Kossuth, was so desperate and so numerous, that it could not safely be left on the frontiers of a country which they had recently made the scene of a most remorseless and destructive civil war; and for the sake of Hungary, and his ally, the Emperor of Austria, the Czar must have called for the removal of those firebrands at the time he did, even though his demands might agitate Europe, and provoke and put on their guard the powers disposed to protect the Sultan, thus depriving Russia of the advantages to be derived from an unexpected coup-de-main.

"No one looks forward to the great event, the breaking up of the

Ottoman Empire, as a blessing to humanity and civilization. Contemplate, for one moment, that Russia is to possess all those unpeopled, but vast, productive, rich and beautiful regions. The distribution must and will, at some not distant day, be left to the decision of some congress of *all* Christendom. If such a congress could be settled without being preceded by the horrors of a warfare among the Christian powers, the advantage would be unalloyed and the blessing complete. Wage war as you will, it must come to this at last—a congress, and the expulsion of the Turks as a governing power from Europe and the greater part of Asia Minor. If the world is now so unsettled, and if we will aim at a settlement, and one which will be enduring, we must come to a decision on the Turkish question *now*. If it is left undecided, our settlement will be most incomplete; Turkey will be a standing *casus belli*, exposing every year the peace of Christendom to a sudden interruption.

"The Turks themselves seem to be generally convinced that their final hour is approaching.—'We are no longer Musselmen—the Musselman sabre is broken. The Osmanlies will be driven out of Europe by the Ghiaours, and driven through Asia, to the regions from which they first sprung. It is *Kismet!* We cannot resist destiny!' Some consoled themselves with the dream of a very strange Millennium:—after a long series of years, and an entire abasement of the Musselman, and of Musselman people, JESUS, THE GREAT PROPHET, would return to earth, gather up the scattered fragments of the believers of Mahomet, reanimate their faith and their ancient valor, and give them, until the world's end, dominion over all the earth, with one religion, and one unbroken, undisturbed peace and happiness."*

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* Kossuth has been sent to Kutayia, in Asia Minor, for the term of *one* year, and not a prisoner for life, as was at first imperiously insisted upon by the Czar and the Emperor of Austria. As we are credibly informed, it is not true that the Sultan has refused his protection, unless Kossuth would abjure his religion and become a Musselman. The Sultan has at his own expense fitted out a vessel for the purpose of conveying the Hungarian refugees to the United States. Would it be unreasonable to expect to hear, before long, that Turkey had become a *republic*, and that a *holy alliance* had been formed between the Republic of Turkey and that of the United States, to enter upon a crusade to break down the monarchies of Europe?

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—FOREIGN COMMERCE OF CHARLESTON.

THE tabular statement of the exports from Charleston to foreign countries during the year 1850, it will be perceived amount in their aggregate value to $12,394,497, being an increase of nearly a million and a half of dollars over the exports of 1849, and of four millions and a half on those of 1848. It is gratifying also that this increase of exports has been attended with a corresponding increase of imports, as will be seen by the following comparative statement of duties collected, on foreign imports, during the years specified:

Duties for the year 1850	$533,706 95
Duties for the year 1849	421,774 68
Duties for the year 1848	327,893 42
Increase of the year 1850 over 1849	111,932 27
Increase of the year 1850 over 1840	205,813 53

We may further state, that if the goods in the Public Warehouse had been taken into consumption, the aggregate amount for the past year would have been considerably over $600,000, as the quantity of goods similarly situated at the close of last year, was comparatively trifling. The evidence which these results afford of the commercial growth and prosperity of our city, is just cause of rejoicing, and should cheer on our merchants, and all our citizens, to more vigorous exertions, to make that growth sure and progressive.

Abstract of Goods, Wares, and Merchandize, of the Growth, Produce, and Manufacture of the United States, Exported from the District of Charleston, from the 1st January to 31st December, 1850, both inclusive:

WHITHER EXPORTED.	Lumber. Quantity. M. Feet.	Lumber. Value. Dolls.	Naval Stores. Tar, Pitch. Bbls.	Naval Stores. Rosin, Trp'e. Bbls.	Naval Stores. Value. Dolls.	Rice. Quant'y. Tierces.	Rice. Value. Dolls.
Russia						1,512	33,996
Prussia				672	664	1,881	42,762
Sweden			50	77	156	612	14,237
Denmark and Norway	22,638	211				5,710	110,488
Holland	6,516	69		836	1,666	2,189	46,797
England, Man and Berwick	123,667	7,296	6,455	9,497	35,170	16,695	342,274
Scotland	1,410	300	100	183	566		
British West Indies	593,231	9,857	96	17	183	1,136	5,059
The Hanse Towns & ports of Ger'y	387,668	9,869	539	993	4,646	7,523	146,883
French E'pean ports on Atlantic	102,999	3,524	136		147	4,912	104,826
French E'pean ports on Mediter'n			60			636	14,463
Spanish E'pean ports on Mediter'n	53,450	992	300	65	458	161	3,063
Spanish E'pean ports on Atlantic	1,811,963	40,889		516	900	332	7,460
French African ports	364,189	6,477					
Belgium	360,329	5,412		12	27	4,067	83,157
Cuba	475,773	8,474				13,198	260,066
Buenos Ayres	336,031	5,458					
	4,639,864	98,888	7,676	21,868	44,583	60,564	1,215,531

WHITHER EXPORTED.	Cotton. Sea Island. Pounds.	Cotton. Upland. Pounds.	Cotton. Value. Dolls.	Miscellan's Articles. Dolls.	Total val. to each C'try. Dolls.
Russia		314,261	40,076		74,072
Prussia		38,552	4,917		48,343
Sweden		347,273	41,699		56,092
Denmark and Norway					110,699
Holland		581,317	71,580		120,112
England, Man and Berwick	3,774,627	60,697,156	8,612,944	6,919	9,004,603
Scotland		1,979,902	247,715	74	248,655
British West Indies				14,426	29,525
The Hanse Towns & ports of Germany		708,602	95,114		256,512
French E'pean ports on Atlantic	833,153	8,474,744	805,093	1,200	914,790
French E'pean ports on Mediter'n		174,287	18,715		33,238
Spanish E'pean ports on Mediter'n		7,242,731	954,812		959,325
Spanish E'pean ports on Atlantic		542,046	69,877		119,126
French African ports					6,477
Belgium		377,872	45,763		134,359
Cuba				4,571	273,111
Buenos Ayres					5,458
	4,607,780	81,478,743	11,008,305	27,190	$12,394,497

Exported in American vessels, $7,181,729; exported in foreign vessels, $5,212,768. Total, $12,394,497. Amount exported in the year 1849, $11,085,854. Amount exported in the year 1848, $7,971,745. Increase 1850, over that of 1849, $1,308,643. Increase 1850, over that of 1848, $4,422,752.—[*Charleston Mercury*.

2.—THE CHARLESTON LINE OF STEAMERS.

We announce with great satisfaction that the stock necessary to the organization of the Atlantic Steam Navigation Company, was all taken yesterday in a few minutes after the books were opened. This, with the State's subscription, which it secures, places beyond doubt the construction of the first two vessels of the line, and we have entire confidence that they will be speedily followed by the others. The readiness with which the stock was subscribed, shows that the true value is set upon this enterprise, so important, in many aspects, to Charleston and South Carolina.

3.—PRICES, &c., AT NEW-ORLEANS FOR FIVE YEARS, TAKEN ON 1ST OF EACH MONTH, OF COTTON, &c., TOGETHER WITH TOTAL RECEIPTS, AND CROPS OF THE UNITED STATES.

MIDDLING TO FAIR COTTON.

	1849. 1850.	1848. 1849.	1847. 1848.	1846. 1847.	1845. 1846.
	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.
September	9¼ a 11½	5¼ a —	10¾ a 12	7¼ a 9	7¼ a 8¾
October	9¾ a 12	5¼ a 7	10 a 11	8¾ a 10	6⅞ a 8¾
November	9⅞ a 11	5 a 6	7½ a 8½	9 a 10½	7 a 8
December	10¼ a 11¼	5¼ a 6¼	6¼ a 7¾	9 a 10¼	6¼ a 7⅝
January	10¼ a 11½	5⅛ a 6½	6½ a 7¾	10 a 11½	6½ a 7⅞
February	11¼ a 12¾	6½ a 7½	6¾ a 8	11½ a 13	7⅞ a 7¾
March	10¼ a 12¾	6¼ a 7½	6½ a 7⅞	9½ a 11	6½ a 8¼
April	10¾ a 12	6½ a 7½	6¼ a 7⅞	10⅝ a 11¾	6⅞ a 8¾
May	11¼ a 13	6¼ a 7¾	5 a 6½	10⅝ a 12½	6½ a 8½
June	11½ a 13¼	7 a 8¾	5½ a 7¼	9½ a 11¾	6½ a 8
July	11¾ a 13½	7 a 8¾	5½ a 7¼	9¼ a 10¾	6½ a 8
August	12¾ a 13½	9 a —	5⅝ a 7½	10½ a 12	7 a 8½
	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.
Receipts at New-Orleans	797,387	1,100,636	1,188,733	707,324	1,053,633
Crop of United States	2,100,000	2,700,000	2,350,000	1,800,000	2,100,537

SUGAR ON THE LEVEE.

	1849. 1850.	1848. 1849.	1847. 1848.	1846. 1847.	1845. 1846.
	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.
September	3 a 5¼	2½ a 4¼	5 a 7¾	4½ a 7¼	6 a 6½
October	4 a 6¼	2½ a 4¾	5 a 7½	6¼ a 9	6 a 7⅛
November	3 a 6	3 a 4½	3 a 5½	5½ a 7	5 a 7
December	3 a 6	2½ a 4½	2½ a 5	4½ a 7	4 a 6½
January	2½ a 5	2½ a 4½	2½ a 5¼	5 a 7½	4¼ a 6½
February	2½ a 5	2½ a 5	2½ a 5	5 a 7½	4 a 6½
March	2½ a 5	2¾ a 5¼	2¼ a 5	5¼ a 7½	4 a 6½
April	2½ a 5	2¾ a 5¼	2¼ a 5	5¾ a 7½	4 a 6½
May	2½ a 5	2¾ a 5¼	1½ a 4¾	5 a 7½	4½ a 6½
June	3¾ a 5¾	2¾ a 5	1½ a 4½	5 a 7½	4 a 6½
July	4 a 6	2¾ a 4¾	2½ a 4¾	5 a 7¾	4 a 6½
August	4¼ a 6¾	3 a 5½	2¼ a 4¼	5¼ a 8	4½ a 7¼

MOLASSES ON THE LEVEE.

	1849. 1850.	1848. 1849.	1847. 1848.	1846. 1847.	1845. 1846.
	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.
September	10 a 20	15 a 20	28 a 32	15 a 22	24 a 27
October	10 a 20	17 a 21	28 a 32	20 a 25	21 a 24
November	24 a 24½	23½ a 24	22½ a 23	26 a 26½	21 a 22
December	20½ a 20¾	19½ a 20	19¼ a 19½	23 a 23½	20 a —
January	17 a 19½	18 a 19½	17 a 17¼	24½ a 25	21 a 21½
February	15 a 20½	20 a 21½	17 a 19	27 a —	21 a 21½
March	12 a 21½	15 a 19	15 a 21	25 a 29¼	22½ a 23
April	10 a 21	15 a 19	15 a 21	25 a 29	25 a 25½
May	10 a 23	12½ a 18	12 a 16	26 a 30	23 a 23½
June	21 a 27	12 a 18½	15 a 20	26 a 30	18 a 22
July	25 a 33	8 a 18	15 a 20	26 a 30	15 a 20
August	20 a 33	10 a 20	15 a 20	28 a 31	15 a 21

FLOUR.

	1849.		1850.	1848.		1849.	1847.		1848.	1846.		1847.	1845.		1846.
	Cents.			Cents.			Cents.			Cents.			Cents.		
September	4½	a	5¾	4	a	4¾	4¾	a	6	3½	a	4	3½	a	4½
October	5	a	5½	5	a	5¼	4	a	5	4	a	4½	3½	a	4¼
November	4¾	a	5½	4¾	a	5½	5¼	a	5½	5	a	5½	4¼	a	5¼
December	5	a	5¼	4½	a	5	5½	a	6	4⅞	a	5½	7½	a	8½
January	5	a	5¾	4¼	a	4¾	5½	a	6	4½	a	5¼	5¾	a	7
February	5½	a	5¾	4½	a	5	4¾	a	5½	6	a	6½	5	a	6½
March	5¼	a	6	4½	a	5¼	5	a	5¾	5½	a	6¼	4¾	a	5½
April	5½	a	6¾	4½	a	5	5¼	a	5½	6	a	6¼	4½	a	5
May	5¾	a	6¾	3¾	a	5	4¼	a	5¼	5¾	a	6¼	4	a	4¾
June	6¾	a	7½	4½	a	5¼	4¼	a	4¾	6¾	a	7½	3¾	a	4½
July	5½	a	7¼	3¾	a	5	4¼	a	5	6	a	7	3	a	4
August	4	a	6¾	6	a	7½	4	a	4¾	4	a	5¼	3¼	a	4

MESS AND PRIME PORK.

	1849.			1850.			1848.			1849.		
	Mess.			Prime.			Mess.			Prime.		
September	9¼	a	9½	8¼	a	8¾	$11¼	a	11½	9	a	—
October	9¾	a	10	8¾	a	8½	12¼	a	—	10¼	a	—
November	9¾	a	9½	8¼	a	8½	10¼	a	10½	9¾	a	10
December	10½	a	11	8½	a	8¾	10	a	10½	9	a	9
January	9¼	a	9½	8	a	—	11	a	11¼	9½	a	9½
February	9½	a	10	7¾	a	7½	10¾	a	11¼	9⅞	a	10
March	9¾	a	9¾	7½	a	7½	10¼	a	10¾	9	a	9½
April	9½	a	9¾	7¾	a	7½	10	a	10½	9	a	—
May	9¾	a	10	7¾	a	8	9¾	a	9¾	8¾	a	—
June	10¼	a	10½	8¼	a	8¾	9¼	a	9½	8½	a	8¾
July	—	a	12	9½	a	—	10¼	a	10¾	8½	a	8¾
August	11½	a	11¾	—	a	9¾	9¾	a	10¼	8⅞	a	8¾

COMPARATIVE PRICES OF CORN, IN SACKS.

	1849.		1850.	1848.		1849.	1847.		1848.	1846.		1847.	1845.		1846.
	Cents.			Cents.			Cents.			Cents.			Cents.		
September	35	a	46	52	a	57	50	a	55	36	a	40	40	a	42
October	42	a	48	48	a	53	50	a	75	60	a	65	35	a	38
November	50	a	55	52	a	58	41	a	50	58	a	75	45	a	50
December	46	a	52	42	a	51	45	a	50	60	a	70	80	a	82
January	—	a	47	35	a	40	54	a	60	55	a	67	55	a	63
February	45	a	50	34	a	43	40	a	55	80	a	90	40	a	50
March	50	a	57	30	a	41	36	a	42	75	a	90	47	a	52
April	50	a	56	20	a	40	30	a	38	80	a	95	42	a	50
May	76	a	83	30	a	45	22	a	28	55	a	70	40	a	50
June	64	a	70	50	a	55	32	a	36	65	a	80	35	a	40
July	75	a	85	50	a	53	33	a	39	65	a	75	25	a	28
August	75	a	85	50	a	56	36	a	42	40	a	50	30	a	35

MONTHLY ARRIVALS OF FLAT-BOATS, FOR THE SEASON.—1849 AND 1850.

Months.	Ohio.	Kentucky.	Indiana.	Virginia.	Penn'a.	Illinois.	Missouri.	Arkansas.	Tenn.	Mississippi.	Total.
Sept.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Oct.	10	4	13	..	..	3	..	..	..	..	30
Nov.	13	11	29	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	54
Dec.	10	11	41	2	12	1	..	..	..	..	77
Jan.	36	30	34	..	45	5	1	..	8	1	160
Feb.	17	20	62	..	13	4	..	..	9	1	126
March	11	11	55	..	..	11	1	..	11	5	105
April	4	8	37	..	1	5	..	1	4	4	64
May	9	19	11	..	..	1	..	1	10	1	52
June	5	..	6	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	12
July	2	10	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	14
Aug.	2	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	1	..	5
Total	119	124	288	2	73	31	4	2	44	12	699

Also, about 225 from various states, with cattle, sheep, hogs, lumber, &c.—making a total of 924.

4.—TONNAGE OF FREE AND SLAVE STATES.

The New-Orleans Bulletin condenses the following table from the Treasury Report on Commerce, 1851:

TONNAGE CLEARED FROM THE UNITED STATES FOR THE YEARS 1850 AND 1849.

	Tonnage, 1850.			Tonnage, 1849.		
States.	American.	Foreign.	Aggregate.	American.	Foreign.	Aggregate.
Free.						
Maine	111,123	91,014	202,137	127,368	66,081	193,449
New-Hampshire	682	7,531	8,213	1,023	5,819	6,842
Vermont	81,073	1,783	82,856	97,218	825	97,543
Massachusetts	272,278	274,674	546,752	280,187	244,067	524,254
Rhode Island	16,770	1,705	18,475	15,568	2,315	17,883
Connecticut	17,515	9,802	27,317	20,440	3,719	24,159
New York	1,411,557	737,539	2,149,096	1,358,643	784,514	2,143,157
New-Jersey	150	981	1,131	....	428	428
Pennsylvania	81,276	30,342	111,618	93,322	27,005	120,327
Ohio	15,485	18,322	33,807	6,957	9,821	16,778
Michigan	7,982	46,719	54,701	33,919	90,605	124,524
Illinois	1,043	998	2,041	964	2,796	3,760
California	104,266	75,862	180,128	....	....	....
Total	2,121,100	1,297,382	3,418,382	2,045,609	1,247,495	2,293,104
Slave.						
Delaware	....	....	....	1,091	1,599	2,690
Maryland	89,296	37,523	126,819	118,276	31,652	149,928
District of Columbia	1,520	200	1,720	2,320	....	2,390
Virginia	42,091	23,367	65,458	58,989	10,589	69,578
North Carolina	30,739	11,493	42,232	26,030	3,880	29,910
South Carolina	72,222	52,830	125,052	88,738	58,401	147,139
Georgia	21,039	51,524	72,563	31,150	53,713	84,863
Florida	10,022	12,154	22,156	20,507	10,922	3,429
Alabama	32,268	80,717	112,985	76,523	71,593	148,116
Louisiana	211,800	158,137	369,937	293,456	194,234	487,690
Texas	591	3,017	3,608	1,035	1,631	2,666
Total	511,588	429,964	941,552	718,115	438,214	1,156,329

RECAPITULATION.

	1850.	1849.	Am. excess since last year.
Free States—American tonnage	2,121,100	2,045,609	75,491
Foreign tonnage	1,297,282	1,247,495	
Excess of American tonnage	823,818	798,114	
	798,114		
Decrease of Foreign since last year	25,704		
Increase of American since last year			75,491

	1850.	1849.	Am. decrease since last year.
Slave States—American tonnage	511,588	718,115	206,527
Foreign tonnage	429,964	438,214	
Excess of American tonnage	81,624	279,901	
		81,624	
Increase of Foreign tonnage since last year		198,277	206,527

FURTHER RECAPITULATION.

		Increase.
Free States—Aggregate tonnage in 1850	3,418,382	
Aggregate tonnage in 1849	3,293,104	
		125,278
		Decrease.
Slave States—Aggregate tonnage in 1850	941,552	
Aggregate tonnage in 1849	1,156,329	
		214,777

The above classification of tonnage belonging to the non-holding and slave-holding States, furnish an instructive subject of comment. It will be seen, that in the free States there has been an *increase* in the aggregate tonnage the past year, over the preceding; while in the slave States there has been a decrease. Another fact is observable from the above recapitulation; in the free States, there has been an increase in the excess of American tonnage; while in the slave States the reverse is the case; the American tonnage has decreased to the amount of 206,527 tons, and the excess of foreign tonnage increased 198,277 tons, but in the aggregate the falling off in the slave States has been, 214,777 tons, or nearly one-fourth of her entire shipping list. By particularizing, we find, that in some of the Southern States, the falling off in the last year has been most remarkable. In Maryland, the decrease has been 23,000 tons; in the District of Columbia, 1,000 tons; Virginia, 4,000 tons; South Carolina, 22,000 tons; Georgia, 12,000 tons; Florida, 9.000 tons; Alabama, 36,000 tons; North Carolina, 14,000 tons, and Louisiana 118,000 tons. Texas is the only Southern State that has increased her tonnage the last year.

In the Northern States, only four States have experienced a decrease; these are, Vermont, Pennsylvania, Michigan and Illinois. In the whole of the free States, the aggregate increase in the past year has been 125,278 tons.

5.—TRADE AND COMMERCE ON OUR WESTERN WATERS.

The following, from the "Annual Discourse before the Historical Society of Ohio, by the President, WILLIAM D. GALLAGHER," showing the rapid progress of trade and commerce on our western waters, will be read with pride and pleasure by all who are watching the progress, and are solicitous for the prosperity of our great and happy country. The article reaches back into the past fifty years, and shows the astonishing growth of commerce in this section of our country, to the present time. But this is not all; it is suggestive of the future. The resources of the West are only just beginning to be developed. What, then, may be expected fifty years hence, if our commerce goes on increasing in the ratio indicated in this article, for fifty years to come!

"A few facts will exhibit, as well as a volume, the wonderful growth of Western trade and commerce. Previous to the year 1800, some eight or ten keelboats, of twenty to twenty-five tons each, performed all the carrying trade between Cincinnati and Pittsburgh. In 1802, the first government vessel appeared on Lake Erie. In 1811, the first steamboat (the Orleans) was launched at Pittsburgh. Previous to 1817, about twenty barges, averaging one hundred tons burden, comprised all the facilities for commercial transportation between New-Orleans and the country on the Ohio river as high up as Louisville and Cincinnati. Each of these boats made one trip down and back between these two places and New-Orleans each year. On the upper Ohio, from the falls to Pittsburg, some one hundred and fifty keelboats were employed about 1815-'17. The average size of these was thirty tons, and they occupied from six to seven weeks in making the voyage both ways. In the year 1818, the first steamboat (the Walk-in-the-Water) was built on Lake Erie. In 1819, this boat appeared in trips on Lake Huron. In 1826, the waters of Michigan were first plowed by the keel of a steamboat, a pleasure trip to Green Bay being planned and executed in the summer of this year. In 1832, a steamboat first appeared at Chicago. In 1833, nearly the entire trade of the Upper Lakes—Erie, Huron, and Michigan—was carried on by eleven small steamers. So much for the beginning.

"In the year 1845, there were upon the Upper Lakes sixty vessels, including propellers, moved by steam, and three hundred and twenty sailing vessels—the former measuring twenty-three thousand tons in the aggregate, and some of the latter carrying one thousand to twelve hundred tons each. In 1846, according to official statements, exhibiting "the consolidated returns of both exports and imports," the moneyed value of the commerce of the harbors of Erie, was $94,353,350: on Michigan, that of Chicago was $3,927,150; total, $98,285,500. One-half of this, it is supposed, would be a fair average of the net moneyed value of the commerce of these lakes for 1846, which gives $49,142,750. The

average annual increase for the five years previous is shown by the same official documents to have been nearly eighteen per cent. Supposing it to have been but ten per cent. per annum for the four years since, will give $68,799,850 as the present net money value of the commerce of Erie and Michigan. In the year 1834, the number of steamboats on the Mississippi and Ohio rivers, and their tributaries, was ascertained to be two hundred and thirty, with an aggregate carrying capacity equal to thirty-nine thousand tons. In 1842, the number of boats had increased to about four hundred and fifty, and their tonnage to upwards of one hundred thousand tons. At the present time, the entire number of steamboats running on the Mississippi and Ohio, and their tributaries, is more probably over than under six hundred, the aggregate tonnage of which is not short of one hundred and forty thousand tons; a larger number of steamboats than England can claim, and a greater steam commercial marine than that employed by Great Britain and her dependencies. (See Congressional Reports, Hall's Statistics, McCulloch's Gazetteer, &c.) In 1846, Col. Abert, from reliable data, estimated the net value of the trade of the Western rivers at $183,609,725 per year; in 1848, Judge Hall stated it at $220,000,000, in his statistics; and the United States Senate have ordered a document to be printed which estimates it at $256,233,820, for the year 1849! The same document puts the aggregate value of the vessels employed in this commerce, at $18,661,500.

6.—NAVIGATION OF THE RIO GRANDE.

There are conflicting reports as to the possibility of navigating the Rio Bravo by steamers, as a part of the system of border defence. General BROOKE has directed Majors CHAPMAN and BABBET to explore the river as thoroughly as the means allowed them by Government will permit, while Colonel JOHNSTON is investigating the land communication between the Upper Rio Grande and the Gulf. The result thus far is rather in favor of the land route, although the most discouraging of the river surveys makes steam navigation possible seven or eight hundred miles up, to Presidio Rio Grande, thirty miles below Fort Duncan. Others fix Eagle Pass, and even the Pecos, one hundred miles above, as the navigable head of the river. The existence of coal, iron, mica, and gypsum, in immense quantities, and particularly the latter, at the edge of the sterile country above the Pecos, is noticed on all hands. It is said that a plenty of ground gypsum (plaster of paris) is all that is required to convert the whole Rio Grande border into a rich clover field.

7.—TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES.

We extract from the Report of the Secretary of the Treasury the following statement of the tonnage of the vessels built in the United States during the past two years; also, the number of vessels built from 1815 to 1850, inclusive:

	1850.—Tons.		1849.—Tons.
Permanent registered	1,262,574	.....	1,126,058
Temporary registered	323,155	.....	312,882
Total registered	1,585,729	.....	1,438,940
Permanent enrolled and licensed	1,879,514	.....	1,794,970
Temporary enrolled and licensed	20,640	.....	53,264
Enrolled and licensed	1,900,154	.....	1,848,234
Total enrolled and licensed, including vessels under 20 tons	1,949,743		
Total tonnage of all kinds	3,535,454	.....	3,334,015

There were engaged of this:—

In Whale fishery	146,016	tons.
In Cod fishery	85,646	"
In Mackerel fishery	38,111	"
In Coasting trade	1,755,796	"
	3,025,569	"
Leaving for the foreign merchant service	509,885	"

VESSELS BUILT IN THE UNITED STATES FROM 1815 TO 1850, INCLUSIVE.

Years.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schns.	Slps & C'l B'ts.	Steamboats.	Total.	Tonnage.
1815	136	224	680	274		1314	154,624.30
1816	76	122	781	424		1403	131,688.04
1817	4	86	559	394	No steamers built until '23.	1073	86,398.37
1818	53	85	426	332		899	82,421.20
1819	53	82	473	242		850	79,817.86
1820	21	60	301	152		534	47,734.01
1821	43	89	248	127		507	55,856.01
1822	64	131	260	168		625	75,346.93
1823	55	127	260	165	15	622	75,007.57
1824	56	156	377	166	25	761	90,939.00
1825	56	197	538	168	35	994	114,997.25
1826	71	187	482	227	45	1012	126,438.35
1827	58	133	464	244	38	934	104,342.67
1828	73	108	474	196	33	884	98,375.80
1829	44	68	485	145	43	785	77,098.65
1830	25	56	403	116	37	637	58,094.94
1831	72	95	416	94	34	711	85,962.00
1832	132	143	568	122	100	1065	144,569.16
1833	144	169	625	185	65	1188	164,626.36
1834	98	94	497	180	68	937	118,330.37
1835	25	50	302	100	30	507	46,238.50
1836	93	65	444	164	124	890	113,627.40
1837	67	72	507	168	135	949	122,987.22
1838	66	79	501	153	90	898	113,135.44
1839	83	89	439	122	125	858	120,988.34
1840	97	109	378	224	64	872	118,309.23
1841	114	101	312	157	78	760	118,893.71
1842	116	91	273	404	137	1021	129,085.64
1843	58	34	138	173	79	482	63,617.77
1844	73	47	204	279	163	766	103,537.80
1845	124	87	322	342	163	1038	146,018.02
1846	100	164	576	355	225	1420	188,203.93
1847	151	168	689	392	198	1598	243,739.67
1848	254	174	701	547	175	1851	318,075.54
1849	198	148	623	370	208	1547	256,577.47
1850	247	117	547	290	159	1360	272,218.84

The above shows that, notwithstanding the immense number of vessels built since 1815, the tonnage for the past year has been greater than has been known before, except in 1848, when the Mexican war encouraged shippers and ship-builders to exceed their ordinary calculations. The same influence operated in 1815. The war of 1812 had prostrated business; but the instant peace was concluded, the exertions of the shipwright had to be redoubled, in order to meet the requirements of reviving commerce.

8.—STATISTICS OF ST. LOUIS.

St. Louis.—The St. Louis *Republican* of the 1st inst. contains its annual review of the commerce of that city, and a variety of statistical tables, containing much valuable and interesting information, from which we condense the following particulars;

Population—free, 74,849: slave, 2,616; grand total, 77,465. Productive industry—capital invested, real and personal, $3,853,351; persons employed, 7,929: annual product, $13,908,577.

The population includes 23,774 natives of Germany, 11,257 of Ireland, 2,933 of England, and 2,450 of other countries, making an aggregate of 40,414 natives of foreign countries, leaving 37,051 for natives of the United States. This is even a greater disparity between the native and the immigrant population, than we supposed existed. We can add, from the representations of the St. Louis press, and other reliable authorities, that the emigrant population of St. Louis constitutes one of the principal sources of its wealth and prosperity. They have added millions to the value of its real estate, immensely increased the aggregate of the annual returns of its productive industry, and created an important market for the productions of the soil, and the wares of the mechanic and the merchant.

We condense the following from its religious statistics :

Churches.	Number.	Seats.	Value.
Roman Catholic	12	10,862	534,300
Methodist	12	8,300	171,000
Presbyterian	8	5,700	200,000
Lutheran	5	3,300	44,500
Episcopal	5	2,750	136,000
Other Protestant	7	4,800	127,700

Grand total, 49 churches, containing 35,712 seats, and valued at $1,213,500. The last division includes 2 Unitarian churches, with 2100 seats, valued at $70,000 ; 2 Evangelical, with 600 seats, valued at $4,700 ; 2 Baptist, with 1600 seats, valued at $38,000 ; and 1 Boatmen's, with 500 seats, valued at $15,000. In addition to these, there are 2 Synagogues, with 470 seats, one of which is rented, and the other valued at $7,000. The Roman Catholic population is much more numerous than is indicated by the number of seats in the Roman Catholic churches, as a very large portion of that denomination worship in the aisles and vestibules, and an average of three several congregations assemble at each church, at the different hours of the several masses on Sunday morning.

The educational statistics of the city comprise 15 public schools with 2378 pupils ; 44 common schools with 2847 pupils ; 9 Roman Catholic schools (including two convents) with 1356 pupils ; 1 Roman Catholic College with 250 pupils ; and 2 Medical Colleges with 14 professors and 262 students. There are also a number of schools and seminaries in the county beyond the city limits, not included in the above.

The statistics in the *Republican* contain various other items of general interest, indicating an extraordinary degree of prosperity, and illustrating the steady progress of St. Louis in wealth, population, productive industry, education and religion.

9.—CURIOUS COTTON STATISTICS.

The enclosed condensed view of cotton culture, involves very valuable facts, which I was ignorant of when I was a young planter. Desiring to preserve them, I submitted them to the Southern Cultivator, in hopes of a careful perusal of the tables, if printed at all :

One hundred bolls are generally considered as equal to 1 lb. seed cotton, or 1-4 lb. lint, worth 3 cents. How much surface of a field—how many square feet of soil—required to grow 100 bolls ? Cotton planted in rows 3 feet by 1, is 3 square feet per stalk ; 4 by 1, 4 square feet : 4 by 2, 8 square feet ; 5 by 3, 15, &c. Poor land is planted close : rich land, wide—so as to have the plants just lock.

Dr. Cloud's Cotton.—The maximum of cotton culture yielded 5,989 lbs.—say 6,000 lbs. per acre. An acre has 43,560 square feet ; so his crop equals 13 3-4 bolls per square foot of soil. Cotton planted 3 feet by 1, averaging 3 bolls per stalk, is 1 boll per square foot ; and if a sure stand, is 435 lbs. per acre. The number of bolls per stalk is not a fair way to state the question, it is delusive. The true question in planting is, how many bolls per square foot ! Never mind the acres ; take care of the square feet, and the acres will take care of themselves.

One boll per square foot, is 435 lbs. per acre ; 3,915 lbs. seed cotton per hand, working 9 acres.

Two bolls per square foot, is 870 lbs. per acre ; 7,820 lbs. seed cotton per hand, working 9 acres.

Three bolls per square foot, is 1,345 lbs. per acre ; 11,745 lbs. seed cotton per hand, working 9 acres.

Four bolls per square foot, is 1,740 lbs. per acre ; 15,660 lbs. seed cotton per hand. working 9 acres.

Thirteen three-fourth bolls (Dr. Cloud's) per square foot, is 5,989 lbs. per acre ; 23,956 lbs. seed cotton per hand, at only 4 acres.

The extremes differ as 6 to 2. What room for manure and good seed !

Again: If cotton be worth 12 cents per lb., as now, then 100 bolls, making 1 lb. in seed, or 1-4 lb. lint, is worth 3 cents.

Then, at 1 boll per foot, a planter works 100 for 3 cents.

At 2 bolls per foot, a planter works 100 feet for 6 cents.

At 3 bolls per foot, a planter works 100 feet for 9 cents.

At 4 bolls per foot, a planter works 100 feet for 12 cents.

At 13 3-4 bolls per foot, (Dr. Cloud's,) a planter works 100 feet for 41 1-4 cents; nearly 1-3 cent for every square foot worked.

Again: A poor acre is as hard to work as a rich one, It is as hard to make one boll per square foot, as to make 3 or 4: and 3 acres per hand, at 3 bolls per foot, is just equal to 9 acres at 1 boll per foot. Five bales per hand (400 lb. bales) takes about 9 acres per hand, at 2 bolls per foot.

This is called good farming—very good; but it is only 12 1-2 lbs. per row across an acre of 3 feet cotton: equal to 12 1-2 lbs. seed cotton to 210 stalks, or about 17 stalks to 1 lb.

Again: 1 boll per foot, is about 33 stalks per lb. of seed cotton, or 132 stalks per lb. lint.—12 cents.

Two bolls per foot, is about 17 stalks per lb. of seed cotton, or 61 stalks per lb. lint—12 cents.

Three bolls per foot, is about 11 stalks per lb. of seed cotton, or 44 stalks per lb. lint.—12 cents.

Four bolls per foot, is about 8 stalks per lb. of seed cotton, or 33 stalks per lb. lint.—12 cents.

Or, with cotton at 12 cents, and a crop of 1 boll per foot, a field of standing cotton is worth 1 cent for 11 stalks.

A crop of 2 bolls per foot, a field of standing cotton is worth 1 c. for 5½ stalks.

A crop of 3 bolls per foot, a field of standing cotton is worth 1 c for 3⅔ stalks.

A crop of 4 bolls per foot, a field of standing cotton is worth 1 c. for 2¾ stalks.

AGRESTIS.

10.—IMPORTATIONS OF SUGAR,

INTO THE UNITED STATES SINCE THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE GOVERNMENT, INCLUSIVE OF THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING 30TH OF JUNE, 1850.

Years.	Quantity. lbs.		Years.	Quantity. lbs.	Value, Dollars.
1790	22,719,457	....	1821	59,512,835	3,553,583
1791	21,919,066	....	1822	88,305,670	5,034,489
1792	22,499,588	....	1823	60,789,210	3,258,689
1793	37,291,988	....	1824	94,379,764	5,165,800
1794	33,645,772	....	1825	71,771,479	4,237,530
1795	37,582,547	....	1826	84,902,955	5,311,631
1796	25,403,581	....	1827	76,701,629	4,577,361
1797	49,767,745	....	1828	56,985,951	3,546,786
1798	33,206,395	....	1829	63,307,294	3,622,406
1799	57,079,636	....	1830	86,483,046	4,630,342
1800	30,537,637	....	1831	109,014,654	4,910,677
1801	47,882,876	....	1832	66,451,288	2,933,688
1802	39,443,814	....	1833	97,688,132	4,753,343
1803	51,066,934	....	1834	115,389,855	5,537,829
1804	55,670,013	....	1835	126,036,230	6,806,174
1805	68,046,865	....	1836	191,426,115	12 514,504
1806	73,318,649	....	1837	136,139,839	7,202,663
1807	65,810,816	....	1838	153,879,143	7,586,360
1808	84,853,633	....	1839	195,231,273	9,919,502
1809	12,381,320	....	1840	120,939,585	5,580,950
1810	29,312,307	....	1841	184,264,881	8,807,708
1811	55,332,214	....	1842	173,863,583	6,503,434
1812	60,166,082	....	1843	71,335,131	2,532,979
1813	31,364,276	....	1844	186,804,578	7,195,700
1814	20,670,168	....	1845	115,664,840	4,780,555
1815	54,737,763	....	1846	128,028,875	5,448,257
1816	35,387,963	....	1847	2,697,834	275,503
1817	65,591,302	....	1848	257,129,743	9,479,217
1818	51,284,983	....	1849	259,326,584	3,049,739
1819	71,665,401	....	1850	218,425,348	7,555,146
1820	51,537,888	....			

11.—STEAMSHIPS FROM NEW-ORLEANS TO ENGLAND.

It gives us pleasure to say, that in these times when the different Southern cities are entering into active rivalry with those of the North, in schemes of enterprise and improvement, there has been found in New-Orleans public spirit enough, at least, to *propose* a line of steamships to England, to be established by our own capitalists! This is indeed a huge movement in advance, and if, as we believe, after all, it is the destiny of the city to "die the same," it will be comfortable to know that "resolves" and "re-resolves" have never been wanting to her.

To William Mure, Esq., who was kind enough to send us the prospectus of the proposed enterprize, we express our thanks and warmest sympathies, and assure him that he not only will have the well wishes of the whole South in his favor, but that, if successful, his name will be that of a great public benefactor.

We have been disappointed so often in our sanguine expectations, that any lack of faith will be excusable, though we will admit Mr. Mure's statistics are of a kind that must satisfy even the most captious. They are based upon the experience and investigation of business men, and will be of great value to our readers in all of the Southern cities, disposed at this time to extend their foreign commercial communications. Here they are:

PROSPECTUS FOR ESTABLISHING A LINE OF PROPELLER STEAMERS BETWEEN LIVERPOOL AND NEW-ORLEANS.

It is proposed to establish a line of steamers to ply between the ports of New-Orleans and Liverpool, commencing with *two vessels* to be worked by screw propellers. The required capital, amounting to $400,000 or $450,000, to be raised by subscription, in shares of $1,000 each, payable in equal instalments of 3, 6, 9, and 12 months. The vessels to be of the register burthen of about 1500 to 1600 tons, and to have extended accommodations for first and second class passengers, as well as capacity for large cargoes.

The principle of propulsion by screws is adopted for its economy and convenience. A vessel built on this plan, by the best workmen on the Clyde, similar to the "City of Glasgow," which has answered the expectations of its projectors, will only cost about one-third of the sum invested in the large steamers of the Cunard and Collins' lines. The working expenses, coal, &c., are also on a greatly reduced scale, while the capacity for goods and passengers is larger, owing to the great saving in the space occupied by the engines and coals.

The time is opportune, as the British West India steamers have been forced (from lack of time to visit so many points) to give up calling at Mobile Point or Havana, and a considerable number of passengers and goods could be had by touching at the latter point. It is also believed that the English Government will give the Havana mails to the first company putting on a direct line of steamers. Indeed, on the faith of this, it was lately proposed in England to place a steamer on the Havana and Liverpool station; but the trade between the two ports being thought insufficient, *of itself*, the project has been for the present abandoned.

Annexed will be found a schedule of the estimated income and expenditure, which, it will be noticed, shows a nett annual profit of $92,616 for one steamer costing $220,000, or 42 per cent; a very ample deduction for interest and depreciation, say 25 per cent, having been made from the gross earnings.

It is certain, from the character of the cotton trade between this port and Liverpool, that a vessel which could be relied on to arrive within a certain time, would always command a preference from shippers, at a higher rate than current for sailing vessels. At the present time, a difference of ½ to ¼d would readily be paid, so that ½ per lb. might be fairly calculated upon as a very moderate freight.

Estimate of Receipts, Expenses, and Profits, also depreciation, of a Steamer upon the Prope l r principle, of about 1500 *to* 1600 *tons, capable of carrying* 3200 *bales of Cotton, and on her return voyage* 850 *tons of Measurement Goods and* 500 *tons of dead weight, to run between New-Orleans and Liverpool, touching at Havana—*

RECEIPTS OR INCOME.

3,200 bales of Cotton at 1-2d. per lb.	£ 3,200
100 Cabin Passengers, at £30 each	3,000
100 Second Cabin Passengers, at £15 each	1,500
Small parcels, mails from Havana, not calculated	
	£ 7,700
Income of four outward trips from New-Orleans	£30,800

FROM INWARD TRIPS.

850 tons measurement Goods, at £3 per ton (low rate)	2,550
500 tons dead weight, at £1	500
100 Cabin Passengers, at £30	3,000
100 Second Cabin Passengers, at £15	1,500
	7,550
Income of four inward trips	£30,200
Income of one boat	£61,000
But deduct one-third from that derived from passengers for *reduced numbers,*	12,000
Income of one Steamer, independent of mails, small packages, and expenses,	£49,000

The "City of Glasgow" charges £4 per ton to New-York, and the Importers here would prefer a direct line, instead of paying a high freight and then reshipping from New-York.

EXPENSES IN DOLLARS.

Wages for Captain, per month	$ 200
" Mate, $50: 2d, $40; 3d, $30	120
" 1st Engineer, $100, ; 2d, $60	160
" 3d Engineer, $50; Assistant, $40	90
" 6 Firemen, $150; 2 lampmen, $40	190
" 2 Boys, $16; 2 Apprentices, $16	32
" 12 Seamen, $15 per month	180
" 4 Apprentices	28
" 1 Carpenter and Mate	30
" 8 Waiters, $120; 1 Chambermaid, $12	132
" 1 Steward, $40; 2d Steward, $30	70
" Stewardess, $25; 3 Cooks, $15	100
Victualling per month 53 hands	530
	$ 1,862
Add for extra help and other expenses	250
	$ 2,112
Or for 12 months, and no deduction is made for the time the vessel is in port for seamen's wages	$ 25,344
Coal, 300 to 400 tons, say 350 tons for 8 voyages—2,800 tons—or rather calculate 3,000 tons, at $5	15,000
(The Coal can be bought in Liverpool at 12s. stg., and $6 to $7 here.)	
Victualling 100 Cabin Passengers per trip, at $20—8 voyages	16,000
100 Second Cabin, at $10	8,000
Wharfage and Pilotage per trip, and Dock dues in Liverpool, 17c. per ton per day, 14 days in port $250	
8 voyages	2,000
Discharging cargo in Liverpool $500	
4 Voyages	2,000
Extra labor in discharging cargo at New-Orleans $250	1,000
Compressing and Stevedores' Wages on 3,200 bales—80c. *per bale* $2,560	
4 inward loadings	10,240
Commission 2½ per cent. on collecting freight and passage money	6,000
Commission 2½, Disbursements in New-Orleans and Liverpool	2,000
	$ 87,584
Allow for interest on $220,000. Insurance, and depreciation in value, in one year, say 25 per cent., which is a very large allowance	55,000
	$ 142,584

Income as above £49,000, or in dollars..... 235,200

Deduct—

Leaving a profit of $92,616, or 42 per ct. on $220,000 to be divided among the subscribers.

In the above estimate, the victualling is calculated for 100 first and second Cabin Passengers, whereas the Income is calculated upon 2-3ds of that number.

Allow 23 days passage out, and
27 days for passage inwards, } which will be the maximum.
14 lay days in each port—
14—would be

78 days; 4 trips, 312 days—leaving 53 days to lay up for repairs, &c.

AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT.

1.—MANAGEMENT OF NEGROES.

As the proper management of our negroes is a subject not second in importance to any discussed in your columns, I hope it will not be deemed amiss if, in giving my views, I enter somewhat into detail. That on some points I shall be found to differ in opinion from some of your readers and correspondents, is to be expected. I shall not, however, object to any one's expressing his dissent, provided it be done in the spirit of kindness.

Our first obligation is undoubtedly to provide them with suitable food and clothing. Here the question arises: What is sufficient food? For as there is a difference in practice, there must be also in opinion among owners. The most common practice is to allow each hand that labors, whether man, woman or child (for a boy or girl ten years old or over, who is healthy, and growing rapidly, will eat quite as much as a full grown man or woman), three and a half pounds bacon, if middling, or four pounds if shoulder, per week, and bread at will; or if allowanced in this also, a peck of meals is usually thought sufficient. With plenty of vegetables, this allowance is quite sufficient; but if confined to meat and bread, negroes who work hard will eat a peck and a half of meal per week.

As I live on my farm and occasionally inspect the cooking for the negroes, I see that they have enough, but nothing to waste; and I speak from personal observation, when I state that without vegetables they will eat this quantity.

With very little trouble we can always, during spring and summer, have plenty of cabbage, kale or mustard for greens, also squashes, Irish potatoes and beans. In fall and winter sweet potatoes, turnips, pumpkins and peas. I believe there is no labor devoted to a provision crop, that pays equal to that bestowed on a plain kitchen garden. As there is no vegetable of which negroes are more fond than of the common field pea, it is well to save enough of them in the fall to have them frequently during the spring and summer. They are very nutritious; and if cooked perfectly done, and well seasoned with red pepper, are quite healthy. If occasionally a little molasses be added to the allowance, the cost will be but a trifle, while the negro will esteem it as a great luxury. As most persons feel a great reluctance at paying out money for little luxuries for negroes, I would suggest the propriety of sowing a small patch of wheat for their benefit. The time and labor will never be missed. Many persons are in the habit of giving out the allowance to their negroes once a week, and requiring them to do their own cooking. This plan is objectionable on various accounts. Unless better provided for taking care of their provisions than is common among negroes, some will steal the meat from others, and the loser is compelled for the remainder of the week to live on bread, or the master must give him an additional allowance. The master cannot expect full work from one who is but partially fed; while on the other hand, if he will give the loser an additional supply, the negroes soon learn to impose upon his kindness, by being intentionally careless, or by trading off their meat and pretending it has been stolen. Another objection is that some are improvident, and will get through with their whole allowance of meat before the week is gone, and consequently are a part of their time without any.

To make the negroes do their own cooking, the objections are still more weighty. It encroaches upon the rest they should have both at noon and at night. The cooking being done in a hurry, is badly done; being usually burnt outside while it is raw within; and consequently unhealthy. However abundant may be the supply of vegetables, the hands have no time to cook them, and consequently are badly fed, and have not the strength to do as much labor as they could otherwise perform with comfort.

The plan pursued by the writer is, to weigh out a certain amount of meat for each day: a portion of which is given to the cook every morning, to be boiled for dinner, and with it are cooked as many vegetables and as much bread as the negroes will eat; all of which is usually divided among them by the foreman. In the evening enough is cooked for both supper and breakfast; so that by the time we are done feeding stock, supper is ready, and the hands have only to eat and they are ready for bed. When the nights are long, the meat for supper and breakfast is sometimes divided without cooking. In addition to the above, the negroes, during spring and summer, usually get plenty of milk once a day. During the fall and winter the quantity of milk is more limited, and what molasses they get, they are made to win by picking cotton.

To make one negro cook for all is a saving of time. If there be but ten hands, and these are allowed two hours at noon, one of which is employed in cooking their dinner, for all purposes of rest that hour had as well be spent in ploughing or hoeing; and would be equal to ten hours work of one hand; whereas, the fourth of that time would be sufficient for one to cook for all. As there are usually a number of children to be taken care of, the cook can attend to these, and see that the nurses do their duty. I would add, that besides occasional personal inspection, it is made obligatory on the overseer, frequently to examine the cooking, and see that it is properly done.

One of your correspondents has endeavored to prove that lean meat is more nutritious than fat. It is, however, a well known fact, that the more exhausting the labor the fatter the meat which the negro's appetite craves, and it agrees well with him. This I regard as one of the instincts of nature; and think experience is opposed to your correspondent's theory.

As to clothing, less than three suits a year of every-day clothes will not keep a negro decent, and many of them require more. Children, particularly boys, are worse than grown persons on their clothes, and consequently require more of them. I have never been able to keep a boy, from ten to sixteen years of age, decently clothed with less than four suits a year; nor would that answer, if some of the women were not compelled to do their mending. It is also important that women who work out should, in addition to their usual clothing, have a change of drawers for winter.

As no article of water-proof, suitable for an outer garment, and sufficiently cheap for plantation use, is to be had in the stores, the writer would suggest the propriety of having for each hand, a long apron with sleeves, made of cotton osnaburgs, and coated with well boiled linseed oil. In the fall, when picking cotton, this apron may be worn early in the morning until the dew dries off, then laid aside. By making it sufficiently loose across the breast, it can be used as an overcoat at any time that the negro is necessarily exposed to rain.

Patching may be done by the women on wet days when they are compelled to be in the house. Or when a breeding woman gets too heavy to go to the field, she may be made to do a general patching for all the hands.

In furnishing negroes with bed clothes, it is folly to buy the common blankets, such as sell for $1 or $1 25. They have but little warmth or durability. One that will cost double the money will do more than four times the service.

Besides whole clothes, negroes should have clean clothes; and in order to do this, they should have a little time allowed them to do their washing. As it is not convenient for all hands to wash at the same time, they may be divided into companies, and a certain evening assigned to each company. Those whose time it is to wash should be let off from the field earlier than the rest of the hands, and on that night should be free from all attention to feeding stock. The rule works equal: for those who have to do extra feeding on one night are in their turn exempt. It should, however, be an invariable rule not to allow any

of them to wash on Saturday night, for they will be dirty on the Sabbath, and render as an excuse that their clothes are wet. On some large plantations it is the daily business of one hand to wash and mend for the rest.

In building houses for negroes, it is important to set them well up, (say two and a half or three feet from the ground to the sills,) so as to be conveniently swept underneath. When thus elevated, if there should be any filth under them, the master or overseer, in passing, can see it, and have it removed. The houses should be neat and comfortable; and as far as circumstances will allow, it looks best to have them of uniform size and appearance; 16 by 18 feet is a convenient size for a small family. If there be many children in a family, a larger house will be necessary.

Many persons, in building negro houses, in order to get clay convenient for filling the hearth, and for mortar, dig a hole under the floor. As such excavations uniformly become a common receptacle for filth, which generates disease, they should by no means be allowed. In soils where the clay will make brick, the saving of fuel, and the greater security against fire, render it a matter of economy to build brick chimneys. In all cases the chimneys should be extended fully two feet above the roof, that there may be less danger in discharging sparks. They are also less liable to smoke. In consequence of negro houses being but one story high, the lowness of the chimneys renders them very liable to smoke from currents of wind driving down the flue. This may be effectually prevented by the following simple precaution: Around the top of the chimney throw out a base some eight or ten inches wide, and from the outer edge of this draw in the cap at an angle of thirty-five or forty degrees with the horizon, until true with the flue. No matter in what direction the wind blows, on striking this inclined plane the current will glance upwards and pass the chimney, without the possibility of blowing down it. On page 454 of Reports of Commissioner of Patents for 1844, will be found plates illustrative of my meaning, which Dr. Lee will please copy in the Cultivator, with the necessary explanation. The wings of the angles, as explained in reports, are, however, unnecessary, as the remedy is effectual without them, though they evidently increase the draft. A coat of whitewash inside and out, every summer, adds very much to the neat and comfortable appearance of the buildings, and is also, by its cleansing and purifying effect, conducive to health. The cost is almost nothing, as one barrel of good lime will whitewash a dozen common sized negro houses, and any negro can put it on.

If there be not natural shades sufficient to keep the houses comfortable, a row of mulberries, or such other shades as may suit the owner's fancy, should by all means be planted in front, and so as to protect the houses on the south and southwest.

The negroes should be required to keep their houses and yards clean; and in case of neglect, should receive such punishment as will be likely to insure more cleanly habits in future.

In no case should two families be allowed to occupy the same house. The crowding a number into one house is unhealthy. It breeds contention; is destructive of delicacy of feeling, and it promotes immorality between the sexes.

In addition to their dwellings, where there are a number of negroes, they should be provided with a suitable number of properly located water closets. These may contribute an income much greater than their cost, by enabling the owner to prepare poudrette: while they serve the much more important purpose of cultivating feelings of delicacy.

There should at all times be plenty of wood hauled. Surely no man of any pretensions to humanity, would require a negro, after having done a heavy day's work, to toil for a quarter or a half mile under a load of wood before he can have a fire. An economical way of supplying them with wood is to haul logs instead of small wood. This may be most conveniently done with a cart and a pair of hooks, such as are used for hauling stocks to a saw-mill. Such hooks will often come in use, and the greater convenience and expedition of hooks instead of a chain, will soon save more time than will pay for them.

The master should never establish any regulation among his slaves until he is fully convinced of its propriety and equity. Being thus convinced, and having issued his orders, implicit obedience should be required and rigidly enforced. Firmness of manner and promptness to enforce obedience, will save much trouble, and be the means of avoiding the necessity for much whipping. The negro should feel that his master is his law-giver and judge, and yet is his protector and friend, but so far above him, as never to be approached save in the most respectful manner. This is where he has just cause, he may with due deference approach his master and lay before him his troubles and complaints; but not on false pretexts or trivial occasions. If the master be a tyrant, his negroes may be so much embarrassed by his presence as to be incapable of doing their work properly when he is near.

It is expected that servants should rise early enough to be at work by the time it is light. In sections of country that are sickly, it will be found conducive to health, in the fall, to make the hands eat their breakfast before going into the dew. In winter, as the days are short and nights long, it will be no encroachment upon their necessary rest to make them eat breakfast before daylight. One properly taken care of, and supplied with good tools, is certainly able to do more work than under other circumstances. While at work, they should be brisk. If one is called to you, or sent from you, and he does not move briskly, chastise him at once. If this does not answer, repeat the dose and double the quantity. When at work, I have no objection to their whistling or singing some lively tune, but no drawling tunes are allowed in the field, for their motions are almost certain to keep time with the music.

In winter, a hand may be pressed all day, but not so in summer. In the first of the spring, a hand need not be allowed any more time at noon than is sufficient to eat. As the days get longer and warmer, a longer rest is necessary. In May, from one and a half to two hours; in June, two and a half; in July and August, three hours rest at noon. If the day is unusually sultry, a longer time is better. When the weather is oppressive, it is best for all hands to take a nap at noon. It is refreshing, and they are better able to stand pressing the balance of the day. Hands by being kept out of the sun during the hottest of the day, have better health, and can do more work through the season than those who take what they call a good steady gait, and work regularly from morning till night. They will certainly last much longer.

If the corn for feeding is in the shuck, the husking should be done at noon; and all corn for milling should, during summer, be shelled at noon, that as the nights are short, the hands may be ready for bed at an early hour.

If water be not convenient in the field where the hands are at work, instead of having it brought from a distance in buckets, it will be found more convenient to have a barrel fixed on wheels and carried full of water to some convenient place, and let a small boy or girl with a bucket supply the hands from the barrel. Some persons make each negro carry a jug or large gourd full of water to the field every morning, and this has to serve for the day.

During the fall and winter, hands may be made to pack at night what cotton has been ginned in the day. The women may be required to spin what little roping will be necessary for plough lines, and to make some heavy bed-quilts for themselves. Besides this, there is very little that can properly be done of nights.

One of the most important regulations on a farm is to see that the hands get plenty of sleep. They are thoughtless, and if allowed to do so, will sit up late of nights. Some of them will be up at all hours; and others, instead of going to bed, will sit on a stool or chair and nod or sleep till morning. By half-past 9 or 10 o'clock, all hands should be in bed; and unless in case of sickness, or where a woman has been up with her child, if any one is caught out of bed after that hour, they should be punished.

2.—NATURE AND DESTINY OF THE NEGRO.

We are indebted to our friend, Dr. J. C. Nott, of Mobile, for a copy of his most interesting and instructive Address, delivered before the Southern Rights' Association of that city, on the "Natural History of Man in Connection with Negro Slavery." We extract several pages from this Address, but before doing so, will express our concurrence in the answer which Dr. Nott makes to those who are ever crying "peace," "peace," and "compromise for peace."—The Constitution itself, the Missouri line, etc. etc., were all compromises between the North and the South, and *how have their compromises been respected?*

Here we are in the year 1850, the owners of three millions of Negro Slaves, and *without any agency of ours;* the mother country and the original colonies bequeathed them to us. When the Constitution was formed, this institution was recognized, and Slave States entered the Confederacy as equals, with Constitutional guarantees for their property, and would have formed the copartnership on no other terms. All experience proves that the Negroes cannot be emancipated without bringing want, misery and barbarism upon them. It is clear, too, that these Negroes cannot be liberated without destroying the prosperity, happiness and political power of the Southern States; and yet we are scoffed at and insulted, as outside barbarians, for perpetuating this institution, though no one has ever proposed a scheme by which these slaves can be emancipated, with safety to the whites, and with benefit to them. Such conduct is unjust—is insulting, and not to be tolerated by men worthy of liberty.

Few persons realize the fact taught by history, that it is infinitely more difficult to *destroy*, or alter, great political or social institutions, than to *create* them.

The time of deliverance for the negro slaves, if a better destiny awaits them, has not yet come; nor will the Lord call forth a Moses from the ranks of the Sewards and George Thompsons. His chosen people were afflicted with much longer and more cruel bondage than have been our blacks, and had to abide the fullness of time.

Let us, on the other hand, take a glance at the history of African Races. The population of that continent is estimated at a little short of one hundred millions, of which, fifty-five millions are negro races; and yet, except in the Barbary States, Egypt, Abyssinia, Nubia, &c., which are populated by other races, not a monument, nor record, nor even a tradition exists, to mark the birth or death of civilization. This whole continent, south of the great Desert of Sahara, is a perfect blank in the world's history. The negro race were in close commercial intimacy with ancient Egypt and Carthage, in their palmiest days; they have continued their intercourse with Egypt and the Barbary States, down to the present day; they have had missionaries sent to them for centuries, and colonies established among them: in short, they have had every facility and every temptation held out which a people could ask, and still the first step towards civilization is not made. No negro race has ever yet invented an alphabet, however rude, or possessed the semblance of literature. What does all this mean? Can any rational being believe that any time or efforts can civilize a people embracing so many millions, and who have resisted all external impulses for more than two thousand years?

A capital error—which has been received without reflection, or investigation, and which has misled many of the most enlightened and zealous philanthropists of the past and present—is the idea that cultivation, through a series of generations, can expand the defective brains, develop the intellectual faculties of the negro races, and thus raise them *by degrees* to the full standard of excellence which belongs to the Caucasian races: that they can, in a word, be fully civilized, and fitted for self-government, in its highest and most complicated forms;—that a black King, Lords and Commons, could wield the mighty machinery of the British Empire! A greater delusion never entered the mind of a sane man; and how it ever got into vogue, with all history, all science, and all common sense against it, would be difficult to divine. Absurd religious opinions alone can explain.

Some of the aboriginal tribes of America, as the Toltecans, while isolated from all external aids, have achieved a semi-civilization. The Mongols, Hindoos, &c., under similar circumstances, have gone a step farther; but the Negroes, when left to themselves, have risen but little above the beasts of the field. No pure-blooded negro has ever risen above the grade of mediocrity in the whites. The notorious Toussaint Louverture, of Hayti, is the most remarkable negro in history; and though showing extraordinary powers, for a negro, would have left no name as a white man, and was a brute in morals. He was unquestionably dark, but I have not been able to get any accurate information about his pedigree and precise race.

If, then, the negro races stand at the lowest point in the scale of human beings, and we know of no moral or physical agencies which can redeem them from their degradation, it is clear that they are incapable of self-government, and that any attempt to improve their condition is warring against an immutable law of nature.

This brings us to the great practical questions, what is to be the fate of the three millions of negro slaves now in our Southern States? And what is to be *our* destiny, which is indissolubly linked with theirs? Here we have stood with our arms folded year after year, suffering aggression after aggression from the North, till the cordon is now drawn around us: and looking calmly at the growth of evils which ere long must inevitably end in bloodshed. There are appalling issues before us which must be met, and the results of which no human wisdom can foretell. The slaves double by natural increase every thirty years, and this ratio would give us fifty millions, in little more than a century; —a rapidity of increase which no scheme of philanthropy ever yet proposed by emancipationists could keep pace with. The Northern Abolitionists are acting under the influence of ignorance and fanaticism, and there may, therefore, be some palliation for their offences; but for us at the South, who are familiar with the black races, and know how impracticable all proposed schemes of emancipation are, there can be no excuse for *our* supineness. We could not educate the millions of slaves amongst us, for they would be unfit for slavery, and dangerous to us, while they would still be unfit for liberty: and admitting that cultivation could improve their intelligence, a century would be but a beginning in the work of regeneration. Many centuries would elapse, admitting its possibility, before the work could be completed; and it is expecting too much of human nature, to suppose that one race will sacrifice itself during so many generations, for the sole benefit of another.

Well, suppose the slaves to be educated as far as practicable, and prepared for emancipation, what then could be done with them? The free states are passing laws everywhere to protect themselves against the influx of free negroes, and very soon the barrier around us will be complete. It is clear, that the three millions of slaves now at the South, could not be turned loose upon *us*. Would a single man in Alabama vote to turn loose the three hundred thousand negroes within *her* borders, upon any terms which could be proposed?

It is evident, then, that if the negroes in the Slave States are permitted to exist at all on this continent, it can be no where but in *Slave States*, and no where *but in slavery*, with all their fearful increase. Can any one deny this assertion? The number which would escape to free states, would be too small to affect materially the result, and the time is fast approaching when *all* free states will pass prohibitory laws against this population; for they know, as well as we do, that a large free negro population—which is an indolent, improvident, vicious, non-producing class—could not be tolerated. It is, therefore, evident, that we should have to provide for the evil at home, however incurable, or look to Liberia as a safety-valve.

It has been seriously suggested by some, and by Sir Charles Lyell, amongst others, that the negroes should be gradually educated and emancipated at home, and allowed to amalgamate with the whites; and thus be absorbed and become a part of our flesh and bone, and a part of our civilization. This proposition is not only insulting and revolting to us, but is overruled by other objections. There is no doubt that the intellectual grade of the negro races may be greatly improved by crossing them with the whites; but it must not be forgotten, on the

other hand, that the white races would be *dragged down* by the adulteration, and their civilization destroyed. We see now how difficult it is for the purest races of the earth to maintain anything like rational governments; and what would become of our institutions, in the hands of mulattoes? A great aim of philanthropy should be, to keep the ruling races of the world as pure and as wise as possible, for it is only through them that the others can be made prosperous and happy. Look at Hayti, where the mulatto caste governed feebly for a time: their movement was constantly retrograde, until finally, dragged down by the pure blacks, they were exterminated, or driven away. That beautiful island is now plunged into a perfectly savage state, and I am credibly informed by an eye-witness, that he, on two occasions, saw the negroes roasting and eating Dominican prisoners on the road side!

It being certain, then, (accumulating with the rapidity we have stated) that the slaves of the Southern States *must have* an outlet at no very distant day, in some direction—let us revert to the proposed colonization in Africa. This is a scheme which has occupied the serious attention, and met with the full approval, of all the leading men of the North, and not a few of those at the South; and though fully convinced of its impracticability, I shall be glad to see the experiment now making with the free negroes fairly carried out, as I am convinced it will serve to prove the correctness of the views I have advanced.

It is utterly inconceivable to my mind, how so many men of intelligence could be led to favor a scheme so impracticable, with the history of the two races open before them. There Africa stands with her fifty millions of blacks, and there she has stood for the last five thousand years, with this people occupying the same countries, without one step towards civilization; and all the experiments in the United States, the West Indies, &c., have failed. The boon has been presented to them in every possible shape, and they have never been able to grasp it. Is not the delusion the more extraordinary, when we see sensible men in this country and Europe fostering, with confident hopes, the Republic of Liberia—while they laugh at the absurdity of the French nation, one of the most intellectual in the world, in attempting to make a republican, or any other rational form of government!

It is far from my feelings, or design, to misrepresent the facts connected with this scheme of colonization, for it has been approved by many of the wisest and best men of our country; but still I fear we have been grossly deceived, not only by bad, but by well-meaning men, at home, as well as in Africa. Letters and statements are published from Liberia; speeches are made before the Colonization Society in Washington, and published in the National Intelligencer, giving the most poetic accounts of the intelligence, morality and refinement of the black colonists, and the rapid progress of civilization in Liberia. I have good reason to believe that these statements are utterly untrue, and a moment's reflection would bring any thinking man to the same conclusion. Can any one believe that such a change would come over four or five thousand ignorant, stupid, and for the most part, vicious free negroes, in a few years! "The first settlement was made by free negroes from the United States, under the auspices of the American Colonization Society, in the year 1820," and this class *there*, is the same as we see it around us *here*, every day; and we know full well the nature of the material on which these mighty changes are to be wrought. Some of them have made their way back to the United States in disgust, and contradict the statements given. A lamented friend, who died in Mobile a few years ago, (Dr. Mechlin,) and who lived in Liberia five years—a part of which time he was Governor of that Colony—told me that he regarded the experiment as a failure, and that he saw no hope of ever rendering the negro race fit for self-government; and no one who knew this gentleman ever doubted his honesty or intelligence.

The Colony, so far, has only been held together by the fostering care of the Colonization Society, and support of foreign governments. It is governed too directly by the white agents of the Society, and by the white blood coursing through the veins of the mulatto leaders amongst the colonists. President Roberts, who was once a blacksmith in Petersburg, Virginia, I am informed by those who knew him well, is three-fourths white blood, with florid complexion,

red hair, and disagreeable expression of countenance. He is represented as "a keen, shrewd, designing fellow, who is turning matters in Liberia to his own account." Most of the other leading men are also mulattoes. The colonists have had many difficulties to contend with, but if the history of races teaches anything, the delusion will probably not last much longer.

Slavery is already virtually abolished in the District of Columbia. In consequence of the incessant agitation in Congress, and the growth of the Abolition party, this species of property has become insecure—and the slave-owners, from prudential motives, have been ridding themselves of their slaves, who are now reduced to but a handful. Even in Baltimore, by the census of 1840, out of twenty thousand negroes, there were but three thousand slaves, and this drain is going on in all the frontier Slave States, while the slaves are emptied into the Gulf States. Few realize the rapidity with which this process is going on. In Alabama, there were in 1820 but forty-one thousand slaves; in 1830, they had increased to one hundred and seventeen thousand; in 1840, the number had reached two hundred and fifty-three thousand! and it remains to see what the census of 1850 will show. How long will it be before Alabama must pass and enforce laws against the farther introduction of slaves? The slaves double in thirty years, by natural increase, and with the immigration, our children will see around them in this short period, at least one million. All the Cotton and Sugar States will be in the same crowded condition, and each will be passing laws for its own protection. Kentucky is already agitating the question of Abolition within her own borders, and it requires no prophet's eye to see that emancipation is inevitable in all the farming states, where white labor can be advantageously used.

These reflections afford ample field for sober consideration. What disposition God, in his providence, will eventually make of these blacks, cannot be foretold; but it is our duty to provide for our own happiness and theirs, as long as we can. In dealing with this question, it will not do to be guided by abstract notions of liberty and slavery. We can only judge the future by the past; and as experience proves that the negro is better off in slavery at the South, than in freedom elsewhere, it is the part of philanthropy to keep him here, as we keep our children in subjection for their own good.

3.—NEGRO CIVILIZATION IN FREEDOM.

General Brisbane, of South Carolina, has written a series of letters to Bishop Hughes, who, it will be remembered, preached, not long since, a sermon in New-York on slavery. We have only space for one of these letters.

[FIFTH LETTER.]

Most Reverend Sir:—I promised, in my last letter, to be more practical on the subject of religious interference with the question of African slavery. It is within my immediate knowledge that the head of the Catholic Church took the subject into deep consideration, but in a different point of view from that in which I now submit it. Bishop England, of the Diocese of Charleston, was intrusted with the reclamation of the island of St. Domingo—an island which had once been thoroughly enlightened by the truths of the Gospel. For three successive missions did he exert the utmost of his power, and that power, no one is more fully advised of than yourself, and what was the result? He retired from the contest, hopeless of any result, and left the field open to any other agent, whom his Holiness might obtain to prosecute the object. Bishop Rosati, a Frenchman, and therefore supposed better fitted to the task, was next sent; and you are equally advised of the cause of his failure; the Hamite, unless under servitude to the Japhetian, would not listen to him on the subject of the supernatural providence of God to the human family. It is confidently believed that the distinguished French Bishop died of exhaustion occasioned by his mission. I am credibly informed that the Pope of Rome has made no further attempts to impress upon the Hamite of St. Domingo, a belief in his Noatic fraternity with Shem and Japhet, but has actually left him alone in his nakedness. The same inability will soon extend to the rest of the West India islands, and it will be through the annexation of Cuba to the States of the

American Confederacy, which will alone sustain the Japhetism in the servitude of the Hamite, that we can hope for the preservation of the Christian religion among the vast tribe of Africans who are now engaged upon its soil. Unless the head of the Catholic Church shall take the view that we do of this important subject, what shall prevent an intestine commotion in Spain, like that recently experienced in France, from liberating the Hamite from servitude on that noble island, thereby destroying his hope of Christian enlightenment, through the instrumentality of his Noatic brothers. The same state of things exist on the part of the Church, with the entire country of Africa. Should the recent discoveries on that continent prove true, and the soil be opened to Japhetic cultivation, then, and only then, will the Hamite have his civilization secured to him; for then will he be made subject to his brother, and his brother's employment of him, enlighten him. How idle, on this subject, have proved the efforts of those, who have endeavored by African recolonization to civilize Africa. Far short of the truth has been their reading of a prophecy which, as long as the rainbow shall span the heavens, will be indicative of the triune nature of the human family. When African discoveries shall prove, that the elevation of the mountains of the moon are found to qualify the climate of the torrid zone in which they lie—to qualify it so as to admit the occupation of the Japhetian race, then, and not until then, will it be rational—be religious to plant African colonies upon the African coast with a view to its civilization. In other words, when the Japhetian can carry his African slave there to labor on its soil, may the church hope to christianize it. On this subject I have another point to settle. There are many who think that the mission of the Hamite of this confederacy even, is to pass away to the torrid zone of South America—to follow the bent of his peculiar nature, as he did on the old continent, immediately after the dispersion of the race—occupying that zone in its entire length and breadth, even to its limits by the Pacific on the continent of Asia. But how idle this supposition. Even were our christian interest in Ham to allow us to permit him to fall away from God, by falling away from Japhetian servitude, what hope could we entertain of his prospects on that portion of South America. Already does the Japhetian occupy the soil—already does he import into that country from Africa eighty thousand Hamites annually to work his Brazilian mines for him—already has the church dispensed its blessings, through the servitude of the Canaanite, to the children of Ham within the torid zone of South America. I ask you, Most Reverend Sir, would the church, if it could, relinquish the hold it now has upon the African of South America, to take that, of which we have spoken, on the African of St. Domingo or the African of Africa itself? The memory of the great England, at least, cries out, no!—no!—we must not allow the Hamite to follow the bent of his vile nature; his servitude is the means established by Almighty God to prevent him; and it is the christian duty of his brothers to impose it.

Yours, faithfully in Christ, A. H. Brisbane.

4.—NEGRO SLAVERY.

Mr. Stimson, one of the Editors of the New-York Day Book, who is now travelling through the Southern States to make himself acquainted with the true character of black slavery, writes home the following very sensible view of the operation of the institution. It is a common sense view, taken by a practical man, and is well worth reading:

"I have learned one fact, which I have never seen stated, in regard to the employment of slaves. Most of the people who *work* the slaves, hire them of their masters, and pay him their wages, which averages, in this State, for men, about $100 a year, and for women, about $60. The practical operation of this, you will see, is very similar to Mr. Greeley's *Fourierism*, only that it is a great deal better. A farm is a phalanx on which, or in which, all the labor is put, or if not large to put it profitably, the robust and hardy, the youngest and strongest, are sent out to find labor elsewhere. The product of this labor is all brought home to our garner, and the white man or master is only secretary or guard to watch over and protect the property, and deal it out to the different members

of the society or *series*, as their circumstances require. The members of their "Roman" have made a contract with the secretary, and have agreed to give him all the surplus of each year's products, on condition that he shall make up the deficiencies in years of sickness and famine. In this section, he has the worst end of the bargain, but in other places, the members bring in enough every year to support the whole "society." It is not a bad sight to see the young and hardy men and women go out and labor cheerfully all day, and come home at night and put their wages into the hands of one *pledged* to take care of their aged parents and their younger brothers and sisters, and in case of sickness and misfortune, themselves. I doubt much if there is an Abolitionist in the land who would pledge himself and his property to take care of any laborer's family, through all the various changes of life, for the wages he gets. If the corporation of the city of New-York would take the earnings of ten thousand of the poorest of its population, and provide for them comfortable houses and plenty of good and wholesome food, would it not be doing them a charity? Would tax-payers consent to such arrangement? I think not. Then let them not complain of the domestic arrangements of Southern cities and Southern society."

5.—HANDLING OF COTTON.

Mr. Editor,—I noticed an article in the *Eagle* a short time since, on the handling and general management of cotton, in its preparation for market; and as this whole subject is a matter of much greater moment than most planters seem to be aware of, judging from the careless manner in which it is not unfrequently sent forward to market, I desire to correct what I consider a *very great error* in the *management* recommended by the writer of the article alluded to. His recommendation is, not to sun cotton after it is gathered, but house it, with moisture enough, if possible, to produce fermentation or heat, in order to extract the oil from the seed, which the writer supposes will be absorbed by the staple, rendering it at once most beautiful in color and desirable in quality. From the well-known chemical agency of heat, we deem the caution of the writer most pertinent, "do not let this heating process go too far—stop at the right point and cool,"—why? because the staple will be endangered. "The right point," I presume, is somewhere short of the destruction of the staple, but precisely where, I do not divine from the article. Now I object to this whole process, because it is most hazardous, and fails of its object in every particular but one: it gives color, it is true, but that even in excess. The oil is extracted from the seed, but from the fiery ordeal of our writer, owing to its volatile nature, it has escaped from the staple also, leaving it harsh and wiry, and deprived of more than half its value. The germinating principle in the seed has likewise been destroyed, and they are useless except for manure; and what planter, I would inquire, can afford to sustain such a loss, especially in the best portions of his seed? In my small experience in the management of cotton, I have found the following to succeed best, which I will describe in a few words: Gather with much care from the field; sun, or dry in the shade, until all moisture, whether from dew or rain, shall be entirely evaporated; then house, tightly packed in bulk, for two or three months, (longer, if convenient) before passing it through the gin. The result will be a soft, silky, elastic staple, with a color as beautiful and delicate as the most fastidious Frenchman could desire, and all accomplished in a very quiet way, without any "heating" or "cooling" process. This delay in its preparation might not suit so well the convenience of some planters, who seem to be running a sort of John Gilpin race to see who shall get their cotton to market first. I never have been able to discover the good sense of forcing the whole cotton crop of the U. States on the market, to be sold in the course of two or three months; a practice most prejudicial to the interest of the planter, who alone is able to hold it till the spinner needs it, when he might fix his own price upon it; but as it is, he is compelled to take just what anybody may please to give him, and he hawks it about the streets just as the boys do the light, trashy literature of the day, begging for a purchaser. This is most humiliating, when we consider the extent and importance of this great staple—so great and important, indeed, that the very existence of one of the greatest commercial nations of the known world, is supposed to depend upon the manufacture of it.

Yours, respectfully, A PLANTER.

6.—COTTON GINS AND PRESSES.

A new cotton gin has been put in successful operation on one of the plantations of our informant. It is the invention of a gentleman named Parkhurst. Instead of saws, cards are used for removing the lint from the seed; it is then blown strongly against a close wire cylinder, which revolves, and from which the lint is taken by vibrating or revolving rods, coming off in a solid and most perfect roll of batting ready for the spinning-machine or press. Every particle of dust and trash passes through the wire cylinder. There is not a doubt of the perfect working of the machine.

This will be another great advantage possessed by the South over every other country, in manufacturing cotton: the lint may be carried at once from the seed to the spinning-machine, uninjured by damp or wet, much machinery and manipulations dispensed with, in bringing the saw-ginned cotton, taken from the bale to the point at which it would leave the card-gin.

In this connection we are reminded of another admirable improvement now making its way rapidly in Mississippi, Mr. McComb's labor-saving press. We have examined closely into the principles of construction and working of this machine, and think it likely to supersede the great majority of those now in use. It is cheap, durable and efficient, and of vast power. One horse easily brings a 450 pound bale down to shipping size in eight revolutions of the windlass—a vast saving of travel to the horse, and without any extra expenditure of exertion. The presses are made in Memphis.

The same machinist has introduced what he calls a non-elastic tie for the bales when brought down to shipping size, by which they are kept at that size—a result unattainable with the hemp rope. These ties consist of oak, hickory, or other hoops, held together in the simplest manner possible. A notch is cut, or better bound with an iron made for the purpose, on the upper side of one end, and on the lower side of the other end of the hoop; when the hoop is passed around the bale in the press an iron link, similar to the links of a common trace-chain, is slipped on the hoop, catching in both notches; when the pressure is removed from the bale the link holds the ends of the hoop without a possibility of slipping or giving in any way. The hoops and iron links, already for a bale, are supplied at thirty cents per bale. And there is no reason why any planter should not make his own hoops—another step towards independence.

7.—FENCING.—WIRES vs. CEMENT.

An article extracted from De Bow's Review, on the subject of wire fences, is going the rounds of the press at the South. A comparison is therein instituted, in respect to cheapness and durability, between the ordinary plank fence and the wire fence of a Mr. Sibley, of St. Louis. It is unnecessary for our purpose to give the details:—the results arrived at by the writer, are, that a well-made plank fence, of best materials, 4 feet six inches in height, which costs $1 50 per panel of same length, will cost only 60 cents. The wooden fence it is estimated, with much care will last fifteen or twenty years—the wire, with very little care, (keeping it coated with white lead,) will be good for fifty or sixty.

Now, we do not doubt but that many farmers in Alabama will be anxious to give the wire fence a trial. It is certainly more lasting, cheaper, and infinitely more sightly than the plank fence. And then, it is a St. Louis invention—it comes from a distance; "and distance lends enchantment to the view." We ask their leave, however, to make a suggestion in favor of a home production, which is cheaper, more durable, and in every respect superior, to board fences, brick fences, or wire fences. Its only objectionable features are that the patentee lives in their midst, and that the fence may be made by every man from the dirt at his own door!

The cement invented and patented by John R. Remington, of Montgomery, is, in our opinion, a far more useful invention than even his Ærial Bridge. It makes the best roofing in the world, and applied as a paint to fences and timber buried in the ground, protects forever. But its chief use will be for making solid fences, rivalling granite in strength and durability, at a cost not greater than that of ordinary post-and-rail. So simple, too, is the process of manufacturing, that any plantation hand in a few hours, can be taught to make the cement for fences as well as the inventor. The most expensive ingredient being sand, the

chief cost is the labor of preparing it; and this our readers are, most of them, more competent to judge concerning, than we. When it is recollected how much time is lost on every plantation by the hands, during "rainy spells," it will be evident to all that if the fence be as represented, and it can be manufactured by plantation hands, it must be the cheapest and best in the world.

Mr. Remington's estimate of the cost of his cement fence to the planter, is ten cents per panel of ten feet by five—four inches thick. But suppose that it is twenty cents, or forty cents, or even double that—it would still be under the cost of the wire fence.

But the wire fence requires a machine to put it up—the cement panels are conveyed, like rails, to the spot, and the two legs of each let into the ground like ordinary posts. The panel is up in ten minutes; and every day adds to its strength. If a heavy tree should fall across and crush one of these panels, a few hours would suffice to make the cement and replace it; but of course, the farmer who adopted this mode would keep on hand a few surplus panels for such contingencies.

In the course of a few days, we shall receive from Mr. Remington, to exhibit to our friends, a specimen panel of the cement fence, and also a specimen of the cement which is applied as paint to fences. The right to use the invention in all its forms, may be purchased by individuals at from $25 to $100.—*Tribune.*

8.—TEXAS GRAPES.

Mons. Matrat, a French gentleman, who was reared in one of the most extensive wine districts of France, has collected a large number of the best native grapes of Texas, and intends to cultivate them for the purpose of establishing vineyards of the best varieties. Mons. Matrat is a native of Burgundy, and he says Texas is a far better wine country than any portion of his native land. He discovered, in the vicinity of the old Spanish towns on the Little River and Brushy, several very remarkable varieties, which seem to combine the advantages of the foreign and native grapes. They have all the sweetness and flavor of the European sweet grapes, while the vines are as hardy as the hardiest native grapes. It is not improbable that some of these varieties were planted by the Spaniards, and the seeds having been scattered about, they have become gradually acclimated, like the Isabella and Catawba, which are regarded by horticulturists as only acclimated foreign grapes. Some of them, he says, resemble the grapes now cultivated at Parras and El Paso, in Mexico. They differ as widely from the native Fox grapes, as the Scuppernong or Isabella. Several of these varieties, we are informed, have been cultivated in the vicinity of Lagrange, and are considered far superior to the best imported grapes.

9.—CULTURE OF ARROW-ROOT IN FLORIDA.

A correspondent of the St. Augustine Ancient City, speaking of this plant, says that he who knows how to make a crop of corn cannot fail in an effort to make a crop of arrow-root.

The planting may be begun at any time after the preceding crop has been gathered, the sooner the better. The eyes of the root (and if economy in seeds be an object, but one eye used be left on a cutting,) should be deposited in rows two and a half feet apart, and at the distance of fifteen or eighteen inches apart in the row, and covered with the plow or hoe to the depth of three or four inches. The after culture, as regards mode and manner, is identical with that of corn. Poor land will yield an average product through a term of years, of no less than eighty bushels per acre, whilst the good hammock lands of the interior, or lands fertilized by the application of appropriate manures, will yield, (I think I hazard nothing in saying) from one hundred and fifty to two hundred bushels, and perhaps more, to the acre. A bushel of roots with defective machinery, will yield six pounds of fecula, whilst from some, more than nine pounds have been extracted by careful manipulation. With such improvements of machinery as the importance of this crop will speedily secure, I think an average yield of seven or eight pounds of fecula may be safely anticipated. Bermuda arrow-root, now worth at wholesale from 20 to 25 cents a pound, is not

better in appearance than the Florida article, and for culinary purposes is greatly inferior, as ascertained by the careful experiments of a lady every way qualified to test practically this product of the two localities. Other advantages connected with the cultivation of this crop are found in the capacity of the plant to bear up against drought or excess of rain, its exemption from the ravages of insects, the protracted season of three months or more, during which it may be prepared for market, and finally its diminutive bulk as compared with its value, or with other crops, with the exception of tobacco.

10.—ANIMAL CHARCOAL.

J. D. B. De Bow, Esq.—My attention was recently directed to an article in the January number of your excellent Review, under "Article No. 5, of Manufacture of Sugar," in which you state "that the use of animal charcoal destroys the beautiful straw-colored tinge of the sugar, and imparts a disagreeable, neutral tint in its place." This remark, doubtless without any intention on your part, is calculated to do injustice to the manufacturer, besides conveying a false impression, which may abridge the use of this article. Allow me in a few words to set you right. It is well known in chemistry, that no article has been discovered which has a greater tendency for destroying noxious gasses than charcoal. It necessarily follows that it cannot impart, what it is so well calculated to destroy.

That an unpleasant odor has been found at times in sugar partly refined, and that the same has been attributed to the charcoal, I will admit. The charge, however, is not true; and the cause is mainly owing to the improper management of the charcoal after it has passed into the hands of the consumer, and not a necessary consequence of its use.

After it has been used the first time, until it has become saturated with feculent matter from the cane-juice, it becomes necessary to renew it. If this process is not thoroughly done, first by washing with pure water, and then reburning sufficiently to consume all the impurities contained in it, we shall never cease to hear that the charcoal imparts an unpleasant odor. Let the following directions be faithfully followed, and complaints of this character will cease. When the coal is saturated so that it will no longer de-color, revivification becomes necessary; while the coal is still in the filters it should be flooded with pure water, until it passes off as clear as it was turned on. It should then be suffered to drain for some time, then put into retorts previously heated, until it becomes a cherry-red color, after which it must be drawn into an iron box, with a tight cover to exclude the air, when the retorts may be again filled, and so on until all is finished for an entire crop. The better to do this, the consumer should have a sufficent stock on hand to pass his entire crop, and then he may revivify more at leisure for the following season. If this position is true, and all enlightened experience confirms it, it follows that the unpleasant odor complained of, arises from imperfect revivification. The coal after being first used is not thoroughly divested of impurities, which being suffered to remain, in a measure decay, and when fresh syrup is passed upon it, it imparts the unpleasant smell, and sometimes taste complained of. I would here caution consumers against employing any machinery for revivification, other than retorts, such as are used in gas-works generally, as they alone have been found to give entire satisfaction.

It is the experience of those who have used animal charcoal ever since its decoloring properties were discovered, that it cannot impart any color whatever, as its property is to discharge color by absorption, not create it. The only reason why at times the syrup does not pass through the filters colorless, is that the coal has been previously partly charged with coloring matter; and that remaining is not sufficiently porous to take up all the coloring matter contained in the new charge.

James J. Butler.

SOUTHERN INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1.—SHALL LOUISVILLE CONTINUE A TRIBUTARY OF NEW-ORLEANS?

To J. D. B. DeBow, Esq.

In a late number of the Missouri Republican is published a statement of the disasters that have occurred on Western waters during 1850. From this statement it appears that of the disasters chargeable to the whole navigation between New-Orleans and Pittsburgh, *twenty* have been caused by impediments to navigation—snags, shoals, ice, or the like. These twenty disasters are distributed as follows:

2 between Pittsburgh and Louisville (639 miles).
16 between Louisville and Memphis (608 miles).
2 between Memphis and New-Orleans (787 miles).

$250,000 have on this showing been lost by navigation between Memphis and Louisville; and if it be assumed that Louisville may be charged with 200,000 tons of canal tolls, the tax on her present communication with New-Orleans may be set down at some $350,000. Now the question is, whether shall Louisville become a tributary to Cincinnati and New-York, or whether she shall maintain that connection with New-Orleans which has up to the present time given her abundant prosperity? One or other of these must, in the mind of every reflecting man, be considered the settled destiny of Louisville; that city is to be either an extremity *from* which the blood flows, or a heart *to* which it flows. Her connection with New-Orleans, burdened with such disadvantages—both of time and money—cannot stand the competition about to be opened on her by New-York; and her connection with New-Orleans being the fact on which she has grown and thriven, is in her case a fact whose continuance is a matter of life and death. What created Louisville? Her relation to Western rivers, and through that her connection with New-Orleans. Her position, at a break in Western navigation—in the direction of Western exchange—made her a Western storehouse; but when exchange shall have taken an opposite direction, her position, at a break in Western navigation, will reduce her to the condition of a tributary—a summit from which the waters flow in opposite directions, but on which they never rest. A railroad from Cincinnati to Louisville will lock Louisville into the system of New-York tributaries; and as the very outpost of New-York trade, reduce her to a mere satellite of a more central city—*Cincinnati*. The only means of preventing this result seems to be the strengthening of the relations of Louisville with New-Orleans. At present she can meet the agencies tending to draw her trade to New-York, by only an agency encumbered with a yearly tax of from $300,000 to $1,000,000, in addition to its utter inefficiency for eight or ten weeks of the year Half a million of dollars would hardly cover the loss of ten weeks *interruption* to navigation to the city of Louisville (as tending to change the flow of trade), and, coupling this fact with all the others, I am satisfied that the relations of Louisville with New-Orleans—the very life and soul of Louisville prosperity—are about to enter the lists with the relations of Cincinnati with New-York, under a burden equivalent to some million of dollars a year.

360 miles of road will connect Louisville with Memphis (the practical head of navigation of the Mississippi), and will at almost all times compete successfully with a navigation of 610 miles so miserably inferior as that of the Ohio. By making Memphis a ruling point for the freights of steamboats, those freights (*which are now laid on to cover the disadvantages and dangers of all the upper rivers* will, for the distance between Memphis and New-Orleans, fall at least 50 per cent. If a boat can work on Lake Erie for one-fifth of the freights charged on Western rivers—laid on so as to cover the dangers and impediments of the worst actions—a boat can certainly work for one-half those rates between Memphis and New-Orleans. This fact will have the effect of reducing navigation between Louisville

and New-Orleans some 400 miles; and the road suggested will, when worked, in conjunction with the superior class of boats to which it will give rise, place Louisville, in point of time, within about three days of New-Orleans.*

M. B. H.

2.—GEORGIA RAIL-ROAD MOVEMENTS.

Total earnings of the Central Railroad and Banking Company, Georgia, prior and since 1839, $753,383 28; total expenditure, $637,847 23. Surplus added to reserved fund, $115,536 05, making that fund now $186,880 73. Resources and property of the company, $4,047,695 29; liabilities, $3,860,814 46. Dividend during last year 8 per cent., with prospect of increasing business from the Milledgeville and Gordon, and Milledgeville and Eatonton roads, the South Western, the Muscogee, and Waynesboro' road, which connect with it.

The following table will show a comparison of the various branches of business for the year just closed, with the previous one:

	1849.	1850.
Up freight, through	167,721 49	204,947 89
" way	39,774 37	55,160 75
Down Fr't. through	304,572 86	252,154 57
" way	66,003 32	70,577 95
Up pas'ge, through	22,345 66	28,936 44
" way	13,753 28	18,131 29
Down pas. through	21,611 1[illegible]	22,225 34
" way	12,851 75	16,911 18
U. S. Mail	19,750 00	19 200 00
Total earnings	$668,383 91	$688,245 41
Bales cotton, through	164,334	136,050
" way	39,391	39,981
Total bales cotton	203,725	176,031

Whole number of passengers transported over the road the past year is 22,216.

The current expenses of the road during the year, are exhibited under their appropriate heads, as follows:

Maintenance of way	$121,246 54
" machinery and motive power	115 721 72
" cars	29,583 12
Transportation expenses	92,909 17
Incidental expenses	3,429 14
Total	$362,889 69

South Western Rail-road.—The people in the Southwest will doubtless be gratified to learn that the work on the above road is rapidly progressing to completion. The grading is nearly finished—about two-thirds of the superstructure has been placed upon the track, and the work of laying the iron is now being pressed with all possible dispatch. The iron for the entire road to Oglethorpe is at the depot in this city. Several miles of it has been placed upon the track, and

* We learn, from undoubted authority, that between 30 and 40,000 bales of cotton raised in the "Tennessee Valley," in North Alabama, will be shipped up the Tennessee river this season to Chattanooga, and thence to Charleston.

New-Orleans loses all this cotton, and with it an item of about $50,000 which has heretofore gone into the pockets of her merchants.

This diversion of a part of the trade of the far-famed Tennessee Valley, has been caused by the late opening up of a continuous line of a railway from Chattanooga to Charleston, and by the Muscle Shoals obstruction to navigation in the Tennessee river. Let New-Orleans, however, and New-Orleans merchants, subscribe liberally for stock in the Memphis and Charleston Railroad, (as they will soon have an opportunity of doing) thereby materially aiding to push on that great work to an early completion, and they will soon find this same trade returning to them with a two-fold increase. The Memphis and Charleston Road will drain every acre of the Tennessee Valley, and the superior facilities of getting to market by that road and by way of Memphis to the Crescent City, will be too obvious to be overlooked.—*Exchange.*

an engine is now duly employed in conveying it along the line. The bridges are nearly completed, and the depots and water stations on a part of the route are in a fine state of forwardness.

We understand that it is the intention of those having charge of the work to open the road to Fort Valley by the first of June, and to Oglethorpe early in July.

3.—KENTUCKY ROADS.

About $1,200,000 of the Maysville Railroad Stock appears to be pledged, and eastern capitalists have offered to grade and bridge the whole work, and take one-fourth in stock. The whole cost of road is estimated at $1,500,000.

4.—VIRGINIA RAIL-ROADS.

The efforts being made on the Virginia and Tennessee Rail-road, it is thought, will bring private subscriptions up to $950,000, which will entitle the company to $1,140,000 from the State Treasury in stock. The length of line, under contract, is seventy-one miles, which may be completed in a year. Contracts have been made to do the iron works and construct the locomotives by Virginia workshops, which take out a part in stock. Length of road from Lynchburg to Tennessee line, 207 miles.

5.—ALABAMA, TENNESSEE, AND SELMA ROADS.

The ground was broken on the Selma road, 25th December. Other contractors will soon begin to operate. A locomotive, a tender, thirteen freight cars, and a passenger car, have arrived for the Chattanooga rail-road. The preliminary surveys for the Memphis and Charleston rail-road are nearly completed, and the various routes surveyed have proved more favorable than was anticipated after the first reconnoissance made by the engineers. A meeting of the directors was to have taken place in January, to decide upon the most eligible route for the road; the time and place for the meeting will be advertised in due time.

V. K. Stephenson, President of the Chattanooga road, writes to the Mayor of Charleston—"The city of Louisville, Kentucky, is about to subscribe a million of dollars towards building a railroad to Nashville, so that Charleston will have reached, in this way, the Ohio, for the small outlay of half a million beyond her own State borders, for which she was once willing to spend millions. They have taken $145,000 towards making our independent road from Manchester to Huntsville, Alabama. All things are tending to this point in good earnest, that the produce of this rich portion of the Mississippi valley may reach Charleston, with the confident belief that she will prepare for its direct shipment to Europe."

The Chattanooga Rail-road will be ready to the Tennessee as soon as the track reaches that river from Nashville; it will take two years to reach that point with the iron. The repairs and bridges on the Tennessee river will be ready at the same time. You will thus receive the entire road, viz.: one hundred and fifty-one and eight miles of branch to Shelbyville, from Nashville to Chattanooga, as under the old contract you were to obtain but the first 40 miles from the Tennessee river to Nashville, and at a saving of $300,000—the first forty miles it will be remembered, included the tunnel. All the contracts are in good hands—as to the right of way, it is generally yielded nine cases out of ten, and frequently given out of the best and most valuable lands—the whole of the payments for such right, thus far, do not exceed two hundred dollars. Depot grounds have also been given along the route.

6.—NORTH CAROLINA RAIL-ROADS.

Wilmington and Manchester Rail-Road.—Gen. Harllee's address to the members of the Legislature and others, in the Commons Hall, in favor of the Wilmington and Manchester Rail-Road, of which he is President, gave universal satisfaction. He earnestly insisted that all that section of South Carolina, which he represented, desired, was an outlet for the products of their land now tied up at home, for the want of the transportation to market, and that end gained, there was no doubt but that North Carolina would reap all the advantages which must necessarily accrue from having so heavy an amount of foreign and domestic produce poured into the port of Wilmington, over and above its present trade. Gen. H. showed conclu-

sively, that while this road could not, by any possibility, inflict any injury upon us, it must necessarily be productive of much benefit, by enhancing the value of state works already built and in progress, and also by the increased value, both in price and productiveness, of the lands in the counties through which it will pass on this side the line. His remarks were all based upon calculations, made apparently with great care and accuracy, and in the impressive language of figures, appealed strongly and convincingly to the minds of his audience.

7.—VIRGINIA RAIL-ROADS.

That portion of the Richmond and Danville Railroad to the Chesterfield Coal Mines, has been completed. It was expected the road would be completed to the Appomattox river by this time, but the company has been disappointed in this, by the failure to receive the iron ordered from England several months ago. This, however, will soon arrive, and the work of laying the superstructure will be immediately commenced.

The progress of the road has been much delayed by the want of punctuality among the stockholders in paying their assessments.

There remains yet to be raised by individual subscription, the sum of about seventy-eight thousand dollars, to complete the private capital of this company, which, with the additional amount of one hundred and fifteen, dependent thereon from the state, would give us the sum of near two hundred thousand. The guaranteed bonds of this company, under the act of the last Legislature, will procure a sufficient quantity of heavy rail to reach some seventy miles, and the iron and timber already purchased and paid for, will reach Danville. The money to be subscribed, therefore, is principally for grading the road.

The report of the company favors the location of the road as far north as the interests of the work will allow, with a view of securing its connection with the Virginia and Tennessee Rail-road at Lynchburg, and also recommends an extension of the road into North Carolina so as to connect it with the Central road of that state.

The James River and Kanawha Company has during the last fiscal year paid the large sum of $64,502 for interest on guaranteed bonds issued for the construction of improvements which are yet unfinished, and of course yield no revenue. This sum will be necessarily increased when those improvements shall have been completed, and their whole cost expended. But then they will begin to be productive; and there can be little doubt that their aggregate effect will be to furnish the means of paying at least the interest upon their cost. The dock connection, besides bringing the dock into active use, will tend greatly to increase the tonnage and tolls of the whole line by removing an onerous tax upon transportation. The South Side and Rivanna connections will materially widen the area from which the canal will draw its trade: and the Rivanna improvement, especially, must throw upon it nearly all the business of the Albemarle.

8.—LOUISIANA RAILROAD MOVEMENTS.

Attakapas Rail-road, Louisiana.—The planters of the Attakapas regionof Louisiana are earnest in their advocacy of the work, which, as we understand it, involves but 21 miles of rail-road, and a cost of $200,000. It would strike the Mississippi about Plaquemines, and connect the thriving Attakapas country with New-Orleans, by a speedy, safe and economical travel. In the saving of freights alone, it is supposed the planters would gain $50 to $75,000 on their sugar and molasses, to say nothing of the importance of being able at all times to reach market, a privilege they do not now enjoy. The result is, that New-Orleans loses much of the trade of St. Mary's, which finds a shipping port at Franklin, and our citizens should extend a hearty co-operation.

In regard to the present mode of reaching Attakapas, nothing in the world could be more "irksome and disagreeable," as our own experience teaches. We recollect being over three days on a steamer, working our way through the wood, brushing away mosquitoes, watching alligators, etc., or tied up to some landing place for a score of hours to receive on board a freight of sugar and molasses. Could greater obstacles be opposed to travel? We want to know more of our brethren of St. Mary's—they have a beautiful and fertile country, which, like

Araby the blest, makes "old ocean smile" with the perfumes of her fruits and flowers, and they have summer retreats by the sea shore which we would share with them and enjoy when the "Fiery Cross" is in the meridian.

A writer in the Planter's Banner thus speaks—It is well known that the sea route is tedious, circuitous and dangerous—so much so that few or no passengers venture that way; freights, too, are high. The Plaquemine route is equally circuitous and dangerous, and is impeded from four to six months in the year. The bed of Bayou Plaquemine, at its outlet from the Mississippi, has been known to be dry from August to about the 1st of March. The communication by that route now is by a tedious steamboat navigation part of the way, at high rates, with a portage of nine miles over a bad road, with indifferent conveyance, at high rates, with vexatious delays and expenses from the beginning to the end of the journey; whilst by the projected rail-road mentioned above, passengers would travel to and from New-Orleans in less than half the time and expense, and with more certainty; freights, too, could be carried cheaper during the season of low water, and probably equally low during high water, with more celerity, leaving a handsome profit to the road.

Tehuantepec Rail-road and a Line of Rail-road, etc., connection between New-York and California.—The company, which was projected in New-Orleans to construct a railroad across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, have dispatched thither a corps of engineers, and applied a regular steamship to run from New-Orleans. Although it is an enterprise in which the city should feel a deep interest, it is yet one that belongs to the nation at large. The capitalists of New-Orleans should not consider it so peculiarly their own work, so as to lavish their exclusive means upon it. There are other routes, more immediately home, which should have at least equal favor.

A writer in the Washington Republic, shows that, by means of the road, and the great public works now stretching south-westward from New-York, that city may be connected with St. Francisco by a route which shall be 1500 miles shorter than the present, without the dangers of the seas. For example—

From New-York to Richmond, in Virginia, the lines of travel are complete. From Richmond, the "Richmond and Danville rail-road" is under contract for ninety miles, requiring a short branch to connect it with the "Virginia and Tennessee rail-road" at Lynchburg. There are two propositions to make this branch; its construction may be confidently relied on. The next section of the South-western National rail-road is "the Virginia and Tennessee rail-road;" it commences at Lynchburg and terminates at the Tennessee line. It will be two hundred and ten miles in length. This company has been organized with an individual subscription of $750,000, a State subscription of $900,000, and an engagement on the part of the State for a *pari-passu* subscription to the full amount of the capital stock. Of this road about sixty miles will be in use within the next year; eighty miles more will be let in November; and its friends are confident that they can command the amount necessary for its completion. The next section is the "East Tennessee and Virginia rail-road," extending from the Virginia line to Knoxville, a distance of one hundred and twenty miles. This company is organized with a subscription of about $700,000: the surveys of location have been made, and a part of the work will be, we understand, under contract within a short time. The next section, from Knoxville to Chattanooga, in Tennessee, about one hundred and twenty miles in length, will be in operation within a few months. From this point there will be two modes of connection with New-Orleans—the one by the "Memphis and Charleston railroad," which will be about three hundred and twenty miles from Chattanooga to Memphis, and thence by the Mississippi to New-Orleans. This rail-road is organized with a subscription of $1,500,000. The surveys of location are going on, the importance of the work and the enthusiasm of its friends will ensure its completion. From Chattanooga there will be another connexion with New-Orleans via the rail-road to Selma, on the Alabama river, and thence to Mobile. Such is the description of the several sections composing this important line of rail-road. There are other lines of improvement which will also compete for the transportation between the great commercial cities of New-York and New-Orleans. Assuming, then, that this Southwestern National rail-road will be completed as soon as the rail-road across the Isthmus of

Tehuantepec, let us compare the time and distances from New-York to San Francisco by this route with that by way of the Isthmus of Panama:

	Miles.	Days.
From New-York to San Francisco, via Panama	6,550	25
From New-York to San Francisco, via Tehuantepec, viz.:		
From New-York to Memphis	1,250	
Memphis to New-Orleans, via the Mississippi	802	
New-Orleans to San Francisco,	3,850	
	5,902	22

DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES AND MINES.

1.—MANUFACTURES AND MINING IN VIRGINIA AND MARYLAND.

A convention, representing the manufacturing and mining interests of Virginia, met at Richmond. Major A. S. Wooldridge, of Chesterfield, presided. At the second day's session of the convention, resolutions were adopted, declaring that in order to give prosperity to the mining and manufacturing interests of the country, nothing more is necessary than such moderate and stable discrimination in the imposition of duties, as will enable the domestic products fairly to compete with the foreign products of like kind in our own markets; and that the present system of duties fails to accomplish the objects indicated in several respects, particularly in leaving the domestic products of coal and iron essential to our natural security and defence, requiring heavy outlays, and needing the utmost practical stability, to depend on the fluctuations of European trade.

A committee on cotton and woolen manufactures was appointed, and made an able report, from which we take the following:

As far as your committee are informed, there are in the state of Virginia twenty companies, incorporated and privately engaged in the manufacture of cotton, with an aggregate capital of $1,300,000. When in full operation, these companies employ about 54,000 spindles, producing generally coarse yarns, and sold as such, or converted into shirtings, sheetings, and osnaburgs. It is not known to the committee that there is a single factory designed for the production of yarns of a higher number than 20. For many months past these have not been in full operation; at present, about 7,000 spindles are running 3-4 time; 8,000 spindles 1-3 time; about 22,000 spindles at full time, at 3-4 wages to the operatives; 6,000 spindles stopped, and the remainder of the 54,000 spindles believed to be either working short-time, or are entirely idle. From the facts gathered by the committee, they are of opinion that the present production is about one-half the capacity of the mills, and that the entire capital invested in cotton mills in Virginia will be found to have paid no profit to the stockholders or proprietors for the years 1840 and 1850—the very few mills which have paid small dividends in the early part of the year 1849, will be much more than balanced by the lines of others—there can be no doubt that large losses have accrued upon the entire capital invested in cotton manufacturing in this state.

In Maryland, your committee find the state of things, if possible, worse than in our own state; and your committee submit in evidence a synopsis of the factories in that state, which will show a very large proportion either entirely idle, or working short-time.

Whole number of cotton factories	23
Working short-time	13
Working full-time	2
Entirely idle	8

The total production less than half the capacity of the mills.

WOOLEN FACTORIES IN MARYLAND.

Franklin mills at work. Calverton mill working half-time.

In Virginia, 10 woolen factories, running 30 sets of machinery. Capital, $275,000.

Your committee are not prepared to state, with accuracy, what proportion of the 30 sets are idle, but they know all are not at work, and they feel assured the end of the current year will find their condition worse than at the beginning of it.

The committee on mining and manufactures in general, reported among other things, as follows:

That their attention had been drawn to many articles of interest and value, some of them very important in their extent and character, and susceptible of being made largely productive to the wealth of the country.

The article of salt is one of these. There is now manufactured annually in the county of Kanawha alone about three millions bushels, which finds a market in the western and south-western states, producing at the average price upward of $900,000 per annum, and requiring in its manufacture four or five millions of bushels of coal, and the labor of not less than fifteen hundred persons, and for packing the same, 450,000 barrels, at a cost of about $115,000. In addition to which, may be added the cost of transportation, say $100,000, and the employment of a large number of boat-men, and workmen in the foundries, copper works, &c., which supply the works with machinery, and other articles incident to the production of salt. In the counties of Washington and Smyth, there are now between three and four hundred thousand bushels of salt annually produced, and the quantity may be increased to an unlimited extent, and at a cost not exceeding 12 to 15 cents per bushel. Lead also exists, and has been mined to some extent in the county of Wythe, but the production is now confined to the wants of the immediate neighborhood, but could be increased to an indefinite extent.

Copper ores are also found in several counties, and may hereafter, by the encouragement of the copper manufactories of the country furnishing a market for them, become a source of much wealth, beside adding immensely to the consumption of our coal.

There are various other branches of manufacture that have been seriously injured under the tariff of 1846—separately, not of such importance as those articles which have been more prominently brought before the notice of the convention, but in the aggregate of material importance to the industry of the country, among which, we name alum, copperas, epsom salts, chrome yellow, bichromali and prussiate of potash, blue vitriol, white lead, and various other chemical preparations, also, glass and linseed oil. A small addition to the present rates of duty would establish the manufacture of these various articles.

Another committee, appointed to inquire into and report the condition of the coal and iron trades, reported that the condition of the coal and iron trade is depressed and discouraging. The present capacity of the mountain iron works near the James River, now established, is equal to the production of at least 25,000 tons of pig iron annually—their production the present year does not exceed 9,000 tons.

The committee remark, that it is a matter of not less mortification th an astonishment, that Virginia, with an area of coal measures, covering not less than 21,000 square miles, very much of which lies on, or near navigable waters, and is capable of yielding all the varieties of British coal and of equal quality, should be reduced to the actual production of less than 200,000 tons, of the value of $650 000; while Great Britain, with little more than half the extent of coal measures, produces annually 37,000,000 tons, of about the value of $37,000,000 at the mines, and $80,000,000 at the markets of sale.

2—MANUFACTURES IN GEORGIA.

The Albany (Ga.) Patriot gives the following description of the factories in the city of Columbus, in that State:—

The Coweta Falls Manufacturing Company's establishment occupies a large brick building, containing 2,500 spindles, which make from 1,400 to 1,800 pounds of thread per day; 44 looms, making 1,800 yards of heavy osnaburgs per day; 24 cotton cards, three wool cards, and one wool jack. They also manufacture a considerable quantity of linseys, which are more profitable than osnaburgs and yarns. They employ from 115 to 120 boys and girls, from twelve years old upwards. Average wages: superintendent $1,000 per annum; overseers $30 to $60 per month; weavers $15; carders $8; spinners $7 50. Power: one of Rich's centre vent wheels, five feet diameter, capable of carrying as much more machinery. Profits on investment 10 to 15 per cent.

Near this establishment is Carter's Factory—a large brick building, six stories high; cost, $10,200; privilege, 3,000; calculated for 200 looms and 10,000 spindles; estimated value, when completed, $100,000; will employ from 800 to 1,000 hands.

Not far from this building is the Howard Manufacturing Company's establishment. The building is of brick, 50 by 125 feet, six stories. It contains 5,000 spindles, 103 looms, 40 more to be added. Entire cost $100,000. They manufacture 15,000 yards of cotton osnaburgs, sheetings, and shirtings per week, and 400 to 500 pounds thread; employ 100 hands, from twelve years old upwards, one-third of whom are males; wages from 12 to 75 cents per day for common hands; assistants $1 to $1 25; overseers from $2 to $2 50: superintendent $900 per year. Consumption, 1,200 bales cotton. Past profits, under some difficulties, have varied from $34 to $100 per day; estimated future profits 20 per cent. on investment. There is an extensive machine shop connected with this manufactory. We examined some bales of cloth made by this establishment, and found it of a very superior quality. The hands, male and female, had a general appearance of cleanliness, health and contentment. The proprietors of the manufactories have made arrangements for preaching, Sunday schools, and daily free school, for the operatives and their families.

We next visited Winter's Palace Mills. This is a large brick edifice, of six stories, occupied by a machine shop, four runs of mill stones—two for wheat and two for corn—with all the necessary flouring apparatus, capable of turning out from 80 to 100 barrels of flour per day. The entire cost was stated to be some $50,000. Ten thousand bushels of wheat had recently been purchased in Baltimore, and was being made into flour at this mill.

Near this establishment is one which is rightly termed "Variety Works"—sawing lumber, planing, making tubs, pails, bed-steads, window blinds, sashes, &c., all by machinery adapted to these purposes. This is doubtless one of the most profitable establishments in Columbus.

These several establishments are situated on the East bank of the river, and are propelled by water, taken from the great conduit which has been constructed of stone, to receive and retain the water of the Chattahoochee river at a sufficient elevation to afford the necessary power. The head of water thus furnished is from 10 to 14 feet. This conduit is calculated for supplying the power of many other manufactories.

There are two iron foundries in Columbus, which turn out a large amount of castings and machinery for mills, steamboats, &c. They employ a steam engine.

The City Mills, in the upper part of Columbus, is a large wood structure, occupied by four sets of mill-stones—two for flour and two for corn—and extensive flouring works.

On the river, above the city, are several establishments, which we had not the pleasure of visiting; among them the Rock Island Paper Manufacturing Company. Capital employed, $40,000, to be increased to $45,000, to complete the machinery. They now manufacture 1,000 lbs. Cost of rags and other materials from 1 to 3½ cents per lb. Price of paper, from 10 to 12½ cents per pound. Employ 7 girls, 2 boys, 13 men, and 1 teamster. Wages: girls $3 per month; foreman $100; machinist $60; two operatives $40 each. Main building, 75 by 36 feet, three stories, besides finishing room, warehouse, &c.

In all cases where we have given the wages, the parties employed board and lodge themselves.

3.—COTTON MILLS OF NEW-ENGLAND.

The following returns, based partly on the official census, show the number of mills and spindles in each New-England state using cotton wholly, leaving out all of those engaged in the manufacture of warps for satinets, merino shirts, mousseline de laines, and shawls of mixed materials, of which it forms a component part:

MILLS, SPINDLES AND LOOMS IN NEW-ENGLAND.

	Mills.	Looms.	Spindles. 1850.	Spindles. 1840.
Maine	15	3,439	113,900	29,736
New-Hampshire	40	12,462	440,401	195,173
Massachusetts	165	32,655	1,288,091	665,095
Vermont	12	345	31,736	7,254
Rhode Island	166	27,233	624,138	518,817
Connecticut	109	6,506	252,812	181,319
Total	507	82,640	2,754,078	1,597,394

This shows a very considerable increase of production, being nearly ninety per cent. in the number of spindles. So rapid a production of yarns in one section of the country could not but swell beyond the increased consumption of the country, and in some degree produce that necessity for "holding up," which has become so obvious.

4.—THE MINERAL WEALTH OF ARKANSAS.

Arkansas is a border state, consequently rough and uncouth. It is somewhat more so than there is any reason it should be, for there has not been that advancement in the great race of progress, in which all the Western States are taking a part, which should have distinguished her. The fault is in the character of her population, which, we apprehend, have not yet become conscious of the advantages they possess, nor are they yet imbued with a sufficient degree of either intelligence or enterprise to appreciate their blessings, or to convert them to any practical use. The evil will, however, in time produce its own remedy, and we shall soon see Arkansas in the position to which she is entitled by the great natural resources she has within herself, although yet unrevealed.

There are traditions of old date in reference to the mineral wealth of Arkansas. Excursions were made in the early settlement of this country, by the French and Spaniards, in search of the precious metals, and the history of the times says, that these adventurous treasure-seekers were successful in discovering gold, silver, lead, and precious stones. By way of corroboration of these traditional statements, the country in certain localities bears convincing evidence of the presence, at some early period, of these gold-hunters, for doubtless nothing less than gold was at that time the object of their search. The ruins of furnaces, the fragments of crucibles, and the numerous "diggins" in spots, are all indisputable memorials of these expeditions. Be this, however, as it may, recent explorations have furnished the most reliable evidence of the inexhaustible mineral wealth of Arkansas. We have conversed with a very intelligent gentleman who has traversed a portion of the state, and his representations satisfy us, that in at least the two important articles of coal and lead, Arkansas will be, in the course of time, even with the states of Pennsylvania and Missouri together.

The discovery of a valuable character of lead ore is of recent date. This mineral is what is termed argentiferous lead ore, from the great amount of silver it contains. It is only two years since, that a vein on the lands owned by the South-Western and Arkansas Mining Company was discovered, which yielded, after a few weeks' crude labor, about fifty thousand pounds of ore. We learn from an authentic source, that this success gave an increased impetus to the enterprise; and in the fall of the same year, the mammoth vein, upon which the company are now working, was opened. With only four hands, there were raised, in four months, from this deposit, about four hundred thousand pounds of ore! crowning the exertions of the few individuals engaged in this undertaking, with a measure of success rarely equalled in the history of lead-mining in the United States. In addition to this amount, large quantities have been raised from a number of shafts sunk near where the mammoth vein was first struck.

Two or three large shipments of this ore have been made to Liverpool, England. Of these shipments, a lot of about one hundred tons sold at prices ranging from £18 to £21 per ton. Lead made from the ore at the mines, brought £37 10s per ton. These rates are about treble the value of any other lead ore found in the United States.

The assay of the first shipment of ore to Liverpool was as f llows:—

"The pig lead produces one hundred and twelve ounces silver to the ton of lead.

"Lot ore 3 tons 4 cwt. contains 77 per ct. lead, which produces 54 oz silver to the ton of lead.

"Lot ore 8 tons 17 cwt. contains 72 per ct. lead, which produces 44 oz. silver to the ton of lead."

The following is the result of several assays made at New-Orleans, by W. P. Hort, of the U. S. Mint:

No. 1. Lead ore (Galena sulphuret of lead), resembling that found in such abundance in Illinois—lead 85 per cent.; silver 30 oz. to the ton.

No. 2. Argentiferous lead ore (very different from the former), lead 70 per ct.; silver 150 oz. to the ton.

No. 3. Argentiferous lead ore; lead 70 per cent.; silver 200 oz. to the ton.

No. 4. Zinc ore—sulphuret of zinc, free from metallic alloys, and therefore very valuable—yields from 40 to 45 per ct. of metal.

Assays have been made of the ores of these mines by celebrated scientific men in various parts of the Union. They all agree in pronouncing this mineral to be the richest argentiferous ore ever found in the Union; and some of their tests show *six per cent.* of silver in many specimens.

These several mines, together with a large quantity of mineral lands in various sections of the state, are now the property of the South-Western and Arkansas Mining Company, incorporated by the Legislature in 1849, with a most liberal and advantageous charter. Of the successful results of this enterprise there can be no doubt, and the following anticipations, which we take from an article in the Arkansas State Democrat, are in moderation and within the scope of realization. The Editor, alluding to the progress made by the above-mentioned Company in mining, says, "We have the fullest confidence in the success of this enterprise. It will not only prove a source of immense wealth to the Company, but it must exert a very beneficial influence upon the prospects of our state. We have an abundance of mineral localities within our territory; and we only need one practical illustration of the profits of mining, to give an impetus to the enterprise of our people in every portion of the state. We predict that not many years will pass by before the annual shipments of minerals from our state will press hard upon the amount of our agricultural exports."—*N. O. Bulletin.*

5—SOUTHERN PRODUCTS TO THE GREAT LONDON FAIR.

Our neighbor, South Carolina, has been very active in her contributions to this fair; but as far as Louisiana is concerned, with all her talk, she will scarcely have exhibited a stick of sugar-cane, or a cotton stalk. One of her citizens, however, will attend—Lucius Duncan, Esq.

Up to the 4th inst., the following articles from South Carolina had been received and approved by the Central Committee at Washington, for exhibition at the great London Fair:

1. W. Seabrook, Sea Island cotton.
2. J. R. Jones, Upland cotton.
3. J. V. Jones, do. do.
4. Wade Hampton, do.
5. W. W. McLeod, Sea Island cotton.
6. E. T. Heriot, clean rice.
7. J. J. Ward, sheaf rice.
8. V. D. V. Jamieson, spirits turpentine.
9. J. Artman, one phæton carriage.
10. Chas. B. Capers, cypress canoe.
11. Graniteville Factory, shirting and drilling.
12. Charleston Factory, shirtings and sheetings.
13. Eugene B. Bell, palmetto, oak, cedar, and poplar woods.
14. John B. De Saufoure, sweet gum wood.
15. South Carolina Rail-road Company, one circular table.
16. Mary H. Mellichamp, one basket.

6.—STEAM-CAR FACTORY.—CHARLESTON.

A large number of the new and elegant cars which have been lately placed on the South Carolina Rail-Road, are from the extensive manufactory of our fellow citizen, Mr. Geo. S. Hacker, in King-street, nearly opposite the Upper Guard House. The promptness and energy with which the site of this now lively and thriving scene of busy life has been, within a year past, metamorphosed from its former rugged, dilapidated aspect, speak volumes for the prospects of an enterprise begun under such unpromising auspices, and already carried out beyond the expectations of even its well wishers.

The factory under notice is, in all respects, a complete and comprehensive establishment. Everything is done by the aid of machinery, and principally by native workmen. The lumber is obtained from the vicinity of Edisto, brought to the yard in its rough state, and there passed through every stage of preparation for use. Three to five freight cars are sometimes turned out in a day, making an average of about one per day. Constant employment is given to about forty hands. Mr. Hacker is agent for the new India Rubber Car Springs, and is bringing them into gradual use upon our roads.—*Courier.*

GALLERY OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

WILLIAM GREGG, of South Carolina.

WITH A PORTRAIT.

No. 3.

"This only grant me, that my means may lie
Too low for envy, for contempt too high.
* * * *
Thus would I double my life's fading space,
For he that runs it well, *twice* runs his race.—*Cowley.*

There is a natural propensity in mankind to feel a greater degree of interest in the biography of illustrious statesmen and heroes, who by their political knowledge or heroism have contributed largely to their country's glory, than that of individuals who, with humbler pretensions, have pointed out to their countrymen those means by which labor can be honorably and profitably employed, and those sources of industry and enterprise by which the humble can find the means of profitable employment, by which capital may be safely invested, and the resources of a country at the same time greatly augmented.

We propose to give a brief sketch of the incidents in the life of an individual who, although not the earliest manufacturer of cotton cloth in Carolina, was the first in our estimation who, by his sound judgment and knowledge of machinery, demonstrated, to the conviction of the inhabitants, that our southern states were as well adapted to the manufacture of cotton as the most favored countries either in Europe or America.

William Gregg was born in Monongala county, in Virginia, in February, 1800. His ancestors were Quakers, residing at Wilmington, in Delaware. His father, during the Revolutionary War, took up arms in behalf of his native country, and was among the troops who fought in defence of Charleston. Here he was taken prisoner by the British, at the surrender of the city. Whilst on the Road to Ninety-Six, with other prisoners, he managed to make his escape in one of our swamps, and found his way back to his native state. There he married, and returned to South Carolina, and settled in Newberry District. He subsequently removed to Monongala, in Virginia, where the subject of our present memoir was born. At the age of four years, his mother died, which caused the separation of the family. He was now placed with an uncle, Jacob Gregg, who resided at Alexandria, D. C. He was a watchmaker by trade, by which means he had accumulated a large fortune. He also engaged largely in the manufacture of spinning machinery. In 1810, Jacob Gregg removed to Georgia, taking his nephew with him. Here he erected one of the first cotton factories in the South. It was located on Little River, (Whatley's Mills,) midway between Monticello and Madison. The machinery was principally of his own manufacture. During the continuance of the war, the enterprise was successful, and the return of peace brought with it such a flood of foreign goods into the country, that nearly all the establishments of this kind were prostrated. The depreciation of property invested in manufacturing establishments, ruined the fortune of Jacob Gregg, and he placed his nephew William with one of his old friends in Lexington, Kentucky, to learn the trade of a watchmaker.

William Gregg remained in Kentucky until 1821, when he went to Petersburg, to perfect himself in his profession. In 1824, he established himself in business in Columbia, S. C. By faithfulness and punctuality in his profession, he gained the confidence of the community, and prospered in his business. Much of a man's success in life, as

well as the peace and happiness of his home, depends on his choice of a companion in life, to cheer him in solitude, to strengthen his good resolutions, and render his home the seat of hospitality, of innocence and bliss. In this selection Mr. Gregg was eminently fortunate, having in 1829 married Miss Marina Jones, of Edgefield District, a lady whose intelligence, and the general excellency of her character, render her an ornament to her sex and a blessing to her family.

Mr. Gregg commenced business in Columbia with a limited capital, which had been accumulated by untiring industry, economy, and an assiduous attention to the duties of his profession. Not wanting in enterprise, he gradually enlarged his business. This was soon extended to an extensive European correspondence and direct trade. To effect this, he visited England and France in 1834 for the purpose of forming the necessary connections.

Having amassed a moderate fortune, and being in delicate health, he retired from business, believing that he possessed the means of providing his children with a good education, yet, at the same time, not such a superabundance as would lead them to believe that they were raised above dependence or self-exertion, which in so many instances proves the ruin of the sons of the wealthy.

When a man has accumulated a certain amount of wealth, the farther acquisition is comparatively easy; Mr. Gregg, however, did not possess that love of money that would induce him to avail himself of these advantages. Instead of becoming a broker, or a money-changer, he invested his means in commerce and manufactures.

In 1837 he purchased a large interest in the Vancluse Manufacturing Company, in Edgefield, intending to enter extensively into the manufacturing of cotton, but ill-health prevented him from purchasing that establishment when the Company sold out.

In 1838, Mr. Gregg removed to Charleston, where he resumed his former business in the firm of Hayden, Gregg & Company, successors to the old house of Eyland, Hayden & Co. It is now the house of Gregg, Hayden & Co., known in the South as extensive importing merchants; the terms of copartnership being such as to afford the senior partner of the house entire leisure from the active labors of business. Naturally possessed of an active temperament, with a mind to which knowledge of every kind is easily accessible, his time and advantages have not been suffered to pass unimproved. He is, in every sense of the word, a self-made man. He sought for information from all quarters, and intuitively applied it to practical purposes, and in this way has laid up a fund of useful knowledge, which he has, from time to time, communicated to the public. His essays on domestic industry, originally published in Charleston, were re-published in nearly all the papers of Georgia, Alabama, and other southern states. They are believed to have been the origin of the extensive manufacturing operations at Augusta, the Charleston factory, the abandonment of the restrictions on steam in Charleston, the erection of the Graniteville factory, and numerous others in Georgia, and other states farther to the south.

Preparatory to writing these essays, Mr. Gregg visited the manufacturing districts of the Northern States. His notes were made whilst sojourning among the cotton spinners of the North. There is a vein of practical good sense running through these essays that cannot fail to carry conviction to every unprejudiced mind.

"In his preface he says, "We all know what the manufacturing of cotton has done for Great Britain. It has given her an influence which makes all other states tributary to her. We also know, that this branch of manufactures was the foundation on which that vast and continually increasing structure has been reared in New-England, which has given an impetus to all other species of manufactures, infusing a spirit of enterprise, health, and vigor, into every department of industrial pursuits. I have always been a close observer of things, but when I visited the mountainous districts of Connecticut, Massachusetts, Vermont, and New-Hampshire, (for it is pushing itself to the very summits of the mountains,) I could not but notice, with surprise, the effect which this branch of manufactures had produced. Wherever it finds its way, all other branches of industry follow. It brings into requisition every element around it, gives value to every species of property, and causes each and every individual to cling to his little domain as the future home of his children, and resting place for his bones; and though it be but a barren rock, he places a value on it scarcely to be estimated. Every water-fall is brought into use; every forest tree is measured, even to its topmost branches, (for nothing is lost in that country)

GRANITEVILLE COTTON FACTORY, GRANITEVILLE.

after the trunk has been worked into boards and shingles, the tops are cut into laths. Compare this state of things with that of our state, in which a man hesitates about building a comfortable dwelling-house, lest the spirit of emigration deprive him of its use, in which the cream of its virgin soil is hardly exhausted, before the owner is ready to abandon it, in search of a country affording new and better lands,—in which our forest lumber cutters fell, with ruthless hand, the finest timber trees on the face of the globe, selecting those portions which are the most easily turned into merchantable lumber, and leaving the balance to rot on the ground where it was cut, in which so soon as the best timber is exhausted, a water-fall, which would be worth thousands of dollars in any other country, is abandoned as wholly worthless, and in which men possessing the capital of the country, complain that it will not yield them three per cent."

"When I saw bags of our cotton arrive in those mountainous districts, which had been packed in the interior of South Carolina, and wagoned over miserable bad roads (in some instances one hundred miles) to Hamburg or Columbia; thence transported one hundred and thirty-six miles by rail-road to Charleston, where it is sold, after being submitted to the charges of drayage, wharfage, commissions, and perhaps storage; thence re-shipped to New-York to undergo similar charges, where it is purchased by one of these manufacturers and again re-shipped to Hartford, and from the last-named place, making a dangerous and difficult passage up the Connecticut River, is landed, and again hauled in wagons, some thirty or forty miles, over mountainous roads; and having now reached its final destination, (at double its original cost,) is manufactured into coarse cloth. Going over the same ground again, it reaches New-York, where it is re-shipped to Charleston, and finds its way back again into the interior of our state. I repeat, when I saw these things, and knowing, as I do, the rich resources of South Carolina, and the facility with which this cotton could be turned into cloth, by the labor around us, which might be applied to it without detriment to other pursuits—could it be expected, that I would write without using strong terms?"

We re-published in our volumes last year, the major portion of the valuable essays of Mr. Gregg, upon cotton manufacture at the South, and have since received his able address before the South Carolina Institute for the promotion of arts, mechanical ingenuity and industry, which we hope to publish before long. Meanwhile we quote the closing paragraph, in which Mr. Gregg looks into the future of Carolina.

"And her prosperity will be in full tide when we shall hear of large factories putting up at the East to be filled with thousands of power looms to weave up our Southern yarn. When the live stock and hemp bagging which we receive from Kentucky will be brought on rail-road cars, to return laden with our cotton domestics. When we shall see a large portion of the swamps of the Santee, Pee Dee, Wateree, Congaree, Edisto, Savannah, and other swamps, brought into cultivation, the Ashly and Edisto connected by canal, the stock of the Santee Canal restored to its original value by the transit of boats loaded with grain and hay, supplying our low country with that which we are importing from other States. When our hills shall be covered with green pastures and grazing flocks of sheep, and we shall have rail-roads and turnpikes leading to every portion of the state. When our lumber cutters shall be found to be engaged in producing materials for the construction of towns and villages in our own state,—then will the tide of our prosperity be in full flood; we will then be no longer under the necessity of looking for relief through limited production; we will have ceased to be under the influence of the fluctuations of the Liverpool market; we will have rid ourselves of that position which has made us of recent days a foot-ball to be kicked about by the Manchester Spinners and Liverpool Cotton Brokers. Our tub will stand on its own bottom."

In 1845, application was made to the Legislature of South Carolina, for a charter of incorporation of the Graniteville Company. As incorporations were at that time unpopular in the state, it was doubtful whether such a charter could be obtained as would be acceptable to the stockholders; these doubts enlisted his anxious efforts, and caused him to publish the pamphlet entitled "An inquiry into the expediency of granting charters of incorporation for manufacturing purposes in South Carolina," signed, "one of the people." A copy of this pamphlet was placed into the hands of each member of the Legislature, and we have no doubt, that it was finally instrumental in producing the great change in public sentiment which has since taken place. The Graniteville charter, which is a very liberal one, was passed by a large majority of both houses. The same pamphlet was re-published in Georgia, and was laid before the Legislature of that state, and no doubt had its effect in producing a favorable view of this subject in that state.

Immediately after obtaining a charter, the Graniteville establishment was commenced with a capital of $300,000. Mr. Gregg took the entire supervision of the work, and de-

voted three years of laborious and assiduous attention to its erection without any charge to the company for his very efficient services. The work is now completed, and has been for some time in successful operation. There are 9,000 spindles, 300 looms, producing 12,000 yards per day of drillings, sheetings, and shirtings from 14 yarn. The establishment giving support to 900 people, who formerly enjoyed but scanty means of procuring food and clothing, and less for educating their children, but have now comfortable homes—the means of making an honest livelihood—of educating their children free of expense, and of worshiping God in the churches of their choice.

We regard the establishment at Graniteville as a model factory, where ornament and taste are combined, where the labors of the operatives are rewarded, whilst due attention is paid to their comforts, education, and morals, reflecting credit on the institution, and above all, on its enterprising, intelligent, and benevolent founder.

Having published in our previous volumes very full and minute accounts of the practical operation and improvements at Graniteville, we cannot better conclude this hurried sketch than by presenting to our readers a view of one of the most thriving manufacturing villages in the Union, and unquestionably the first in all the South.

EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

1.—SOUTHERN WATERING PLACES AND SCENERY.

DURING last summer we spent several months in the indulgence of recreation among the watering places of the South, and made some light sketches for our pages, of the life and cheer which prevailed among them. It is our intention to continue these "ramblings" from season to season, and let the public know how much they may expect and realize, without the consecrated names of Newport and Saratoga. We also beg our friends to furnish us sketches from their own experience in these matters, and they shall cheerfully have a place.

Since the last season closed, we understand that the *Mississippi Spring* and *Cooper's Well*, have passed into new hands, and that great improvements have been spiritedly undertaken. Of the *Artesian Wells* we have heard nothing. There are other watering places in the interior of Mississippi, of which a report is desirable.

In the south-western states the following places of resort, in addition to the above, occur to us at this moment—*Drennon's Lick* and *Harrodsburg*, Kentucky; *Harden's Springs*, Tennessee; *Hot Springs*, Arkansas; *Bladen's Springs*, Alabama, &c. On the Gulf Coast, we have *Lost Island*, *Bay of St. Louis*, *Pass Christian*, *Biloxi*, *Pascagoula*, *Point Clear*, &c.

We are really desirous of publishing a complete list of all the places of a similar character, in any of the southern or south-western states; and in addition to this, will insert in our *advertising* department the cards of each of them, with wood engravings where desired, if so instructed by the proprietors. As our work has now a circulation immensely larger than any other at the South, and extends throughout all the states included, it must present a better mode of advertising than the *local* papers; and considering the enormous expense and labor we are put to, it is but natural to desire an enlargement of its *revenues*. Considering the post too, we shall hardly be accused of any *avidity* to gain.

On the table before us is the Southern Quarterly Review, in which is an interesting paper from the pen of the editor, descriptive of the scenery and summer resorts of the states of Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia, from which we make some extracts, omitting remarks upon Sullivan's Island, as we have in our January number discussed that "happy isle" in full.

But before proceeding further, let us quote approvingly the counsel which Mr. Simms administers to the "mine hosts" of our "Southern Saratogas," and express the hope they will need none other admoni-

tion. If they would reform our "distant travel" propensities they must present sufficient inducements *at home*. Bacon and greens half cooked, corned bread and venerable butter, coffee and tea which have a smack of each other, but a greater smack of smoke and hot water, will not do. We have an abundant provision country—are not ignorant of culinary requirements—have the wherewithal to live well, (we mean the Southern people,) and please God intend to live well while life shall last, let mine host think and act as he pleases.

HINTS TO "MINE HOST."

"Now, of all that philosophy, which prepares the food with a due regard, not only to the meats and vegetables themselves, the graces and the gravies, but to the temperaments of the consumers, we are sorry to confess that we have but little in our vast interior. Our mountain cooks think they have done everything when they have murdered a fillet of veal or a haunch of venison, —sodden them in lard or butter, baked or boiled them to a condition which admirably resembles the pulpy masses of cotton rag, when macerated for paper manufacture,—and wonders to see you mince gingerly of a dish which he himself will devour with the savage appetite of a Cumanche! You have seen a royal side of venison brought in during the morning, and laid out upon the tavern shambles;—you have set your heart upon the dinner of that day. Fancy reminds you of the relish with which, at the St. Charles, in New-Orleans, or the Pulaski, in Savannah, or the Charleston hotel, you have discussed the exquisitely dressed loin, or haunch, done to a turn; the red just tinging the gravy, the meat just offering such pleasant resistance to the knife as leaves the intricate fibres still closely united, though shedding their juices with the eagerness of the peach, pressed between the lips in the very hour of its maturity;—or you see a fine "mutton" brought in, of the wild flavor of hills; and you examine, with the eye of the epicure, the voluminous fat, fold upon fold, lapping itself lovingly about the loins. Leg, or loin, or saddle, or shoulder, suggests itself to your anticipation as the probable subject of noonday discussion. You lay yourself out for the argument, and naturally recur to the last famous dinner which you enjoyed with the reverend father, who presides so equally well at the church of the St. Savori, and at his own excellent hotel in the Rue des Huitres.

With such recollections kindling the imagination, our extempore hotels of the Apalachian regions will doom you to frequent disappointment. You see yourself surrounded by masses that may be boiled or roasted polypi for what you know. But where's the mutton and the venison? You call upon the landlord—a gaunt-looking tyke of the forest, who seems better fitted to hunt the game than take charge of its toilet. He is serving a score at once; with one hand heaping beef and bacon, with the other collards and cucumbers, into conflicting plates; and you fall back speechless, with the sudden dispersion of a thousand fancies of delight, as he tells you that the mutton, or the venison, which has been the subject of your reverie all the morning, lies before you in the undistinguishable mass that has distressed you with notions of the polypus and sea-blubber, or some other unknown monstrosities of the deep or forest. But the subject is one quite too distressing for dilation. We feel for our readers, and must forbear. But, we solemnly say to our Apalachian landlord, "Brother, this thing must be amended. You have no right to sport thus with the hopes, the health, the happiness of your guests. You have no right, in this way, to mortify your neighbours' flesh. Have you no sense of the evil which you are doing—no bowels of sympathy for those of other people? Is it pride, or indolence, or mere blindness and ignorance, which thus renders you reckless of what is due to humanity and society, and all that fine philosophy which the Roman epicure found essential to reconcile to becoming sensibilities the mere brutish necessities of the animal economy? You must import and educate your cooks. You must appreciate justly the morals of the kitchen. You must study with diligence, night and morning, the profound pages of the Physiologie de Gout; you must forswear those streams of lard, those cruel abuses of the flesh, those hard bakings of meat otherwise tender, those salt and savage soddenings of venison, otherwise sweet, those mountains of long collards, inadequately boiled, and those indigestible masses of dough, whether in the form of pies, or tarts, or biscuit, which need a yesty levity before they can possibly assimilate with the human system.

VIRGINIA SPRINGS.

Along the sea, who needs to be reminded of the Old Point and Fortress Calhoun, the salubrious breezes and beauties of which reinvigorate the spent sages of the capital, after the brutal and harassing strifes, the cogging and cajoling cares, of a wearisome congressional session? Of what is historical and traditional, in the great rivers which glide from her bosom into the Atlantic, we have all the clues in our hands when we remember that last representative of the days of chivalry, singularly unfortunate in an unheroic name, John Smith; when we recall the mighty chief, Powhatan; his successor, still nobler than himself, the famous, fierce old Apalachian, Opechancanough; the lovely *natural* Christian, Pocahontas; the lonely ruin of Jamestown, the decaying nest of a bird that has reared a progeny so numerous as to cover the face of the land. Nor can we forget Mount Vernon, sacred to later

histories, and destined for longer duration in sublimer memories. Richmond, as nobly situated as any city in the United States, an abode of grace and genius, may well arrest the footsteps of the wayfarer for a season, while tracing his route through the picturesque and grateful regions of Virginia. Its beauties have never received the full measure of justice at the hands of the author or the artist. The special places of retreat for health, and for the cure of disease, in Virginia, are better known, and are singularly numerous. Her several sulphur springs have a world-wide reputation. That of the White Sulphur, of Greenbriar, in especial, affords one of the most grateful watering places in America. The spot lies on the western declivity of the Alleghany, in a spacious valley, scooped out beautifully from the bosom of the sheltering mountains. Art has not yet striven, in rivalry with nature, in this exquisite and salubrious abode; she has sought only to render the latter fairly accessible to the examination, if not enjoyment, of the spectator. An ample province, of more than twelve thousand acres, admirably susceptible of improvement, will hereafter employ the agencies of taste and wealth, and give great increase to the singular attractions of the region in all respects; not the least of which is to be found in that frank, elegant, and high-toned society, which, with some small exceptions, can only, in the United States, be found in their Southern portions.

The Warm Springs, in Bath County, lie north-east, some forty miles from those of the White Sulphur. They occupy a sweet and fertile valley, a couple of guardian mountains on each hand, locking them in as so much precious treasure. The view from these mountain summits, conducting the eye over a thousand corresponding terraces, range upon range,—a vast ridge stretching away for more than fifty miles,—is one of the most commanding and impressive in the country. In the neighbourhood of these springs you have the famous "Blowing Cave," described in Jefferson's Notes; a curious miracle in nature, from which the wind, supplied by some secret Cyclopean bellows, rushes forth in a torrent which is almost irresistible. In the same lovely valley with the "Warm," are the "Hot Springs," of strong medicinal qualities and greatly popular. The Grayson Sulphur Springs, in Carroll County, are of recent reputation, and rising still in favour. They are supposed to be of much efficacy in rheumatism and dyspepsia. Rising on the west side of the blue Ridge, the site partakes of all the physical characteristics of Harper's Ferry. The scenery is bold and grand, marked by a peculiar wildness, and warmly exciting to the imaginative and romantic nature. Jordan's White Sulphur Springs have recently risen into favor. They are said to resemble those of Greenbriar. They are in the County of Frederick, a few miles north of the town of Winchester The Shannondale Springs are beautifully situated upon the Shenandoah, in Jefferson County. The Blue Ridge peers above them at the distance of a few miles only.

VIRGINIA SCENERY.

Who needs be told of the pass of the river of Powhattan, where it breaks through the mighty towers of the Alleghany?—an awful gap, with the walls of granite closing it on either hand, while the stream, forcing its way over its thousand barriers of rock, sends up a perpetual roar, the voices of a strife enduring through a thousand ages! Who forgets what Jefferson has said of the passage of the Potomac through the Blue Ridge, at Harper's Ferry—that the sight is worth a voyage across the Atlantic! "You stand," says he, "on a very high point of land. On your right comes up the Shenandoah, having ranged along the foot of a mountain a hundred miles, to seek a vent. On your left approaches the Potomac, in quest of a passage also. In the moment of their junction they rush together against the mountain, rend it asunder, and pass off to the sea." Would you enjoy a wondrous mountain prospect?—there are the Peaks of Otter, an empire in the air, with a world of empire at its feet, on the summit of which John Randolph lay a night in deep watch and religious musing, filled with sublime convictions, and crying aloud, as the sun rose upon his vision in the morning, "Henceforth let no man say to me there is no God!" Would you be reminded of "those days when there were giants in the land?" Visit the Cyclopean towers—seven mighty forms grouped together, near the Augusta Springs, in the county of the same name. Weyer's cave, in the same county, is one of the great wonders of the world, comparable with the famous grotto of Antiparos. Pursue the track of the Great Kanawha, and meditate sublime fancies at the foot of that wondrous natural monument, now called Marshall's pillar. The ice mountain of Hampshire is another of these remarkable works of nature, which it behooves you to visit;—the natural tunnel of Scott County, still more wonderful—and the mammoth mound at Grave Creek,—a trophy of primitive art as full of mysteries as the pyramids of the Egyptian!

ATTRACTIONS OF THE OLD NORTH STATE.

North-Carolina has too frequently suffered from the disparagement of superficial wits and travelers. Her misfortune chiefly arises from the same cause which has injured her two sisters on either hand. She has been one of the great maternal States of the south-west. Her young men have been drawn from her by incessant emigration. A sparse population has impaired the strength, and lessened the enterprise, if not the virtues, of her society. Morally, she is one of the noblest States of the confederacy. She has no debts, and will incur none. Her paths are those of peace and prudence. Her enter-

prise is curbed by a jealous honesty and circumspection, which trembles to do wrong. The habits of her people are simple and unsophisticated. They are manly and hospitable; as true and fearless as those of any people in the South; and as firm and tenacious when committed to a cause. They may be relied upon as friends. They are to be feared as enemies. Her yeomanry belong to the same sturdy, unaffected, hospitable classes which occupy the great interior of Virginia, South-Carolina and Georgia; and the events that shall array the people of the latter States in action, will find her's ranging along with them, prepared to partake the same destinies. The chief want of North-Carolina is that of a large commercial mart. Her facilities of trade have hitherto been few, and the impulse which, in States, is derivable mostly from commerce, has been denied to her condition. Her railroads have been gradually repairing this deficiency.

As a resort for summer travel, North-Carolina presents a field scarcely less ample than Virginia. Her mountain regions are quite as salubrious, nay, absolutely perfect in their salubrity. Her medicinal springs are only less famous, but not less deserving. She is less accessible to the traveler, and this is the great want under which she labors. The facilities which shall open to us the doors to the gigantic avenues among her mountains, are yet to be provided. The railways which South-Carolina and Georgia are rapidly extending to her granite borders, will supply, in some degree, these facilities; and, in the meantime, let the traveler adopt the Virginia method, and employ the saddle rather than the coach. On horseback, he can penetrate to a thousand retreats of health and beauty, which he would not otherwise reach; and acquire a wondrous vigor and elasticity of heart and frame, by an average progress, over the Apalachian terraces in her domain, of thirty-three miles per day. He may effect so small progress, as Mr. Lanman did, in incidental pedestrian journeyings. This will certainly be the process if he be an artist. Mr. Lanman's route in North-Carolina was from Trail Mountain, in Georgia, to the Owassa, or (as we write it, and prefer to write it, in spite of our traveler) the Hiwassee, a tributary of the Tennessee; thence along the valley river which empties into the Hiwassee; thence across the spurs of the Nantihala, which, according to our traveler, means "Woman's Bosom." Pursuing his course in this region, he gets glimpses of Bald and Whiteside Mountain—the latter otherwise called the Devil's Court House—a granite cliff, smooth-faced for half a mile, and twelve hundred feet high,—the very sight from which makes the head swim and the heart sink. By passing over a span of rock, but two feet in width, which overhangs the precipice, you may reach a cave in the summit of this mountain; an enterprise of so much peril, so well calculated to inspire awe and trepidation, that but one man was ever known to undertake it. His perils, on the occasion, did not arise merely from the narrowness of this bridge—one which reminds us of Al Sirat, the Muslem bridge to Paradise. When approaching the mouth of the cave, our explorer encountered a huge bear just making from it. Fortunately, the surprise of the bear was quite as great as his own; the animal being so startled at such an unusual invasion, that he leapt the precipice and was dashed to pieces; but the man was so much terrified at the danger he had escaped, as to be compelled to remain some hours before he could so quiet his nerves as to venture his return.

BUNCOMBE.

We traveled by night from Asheville, on the route to the Warm Springs. We reached the river, along whose margin thence the road proceeds, about the dawn of day. In the vague and misty twilight, the first flashings of the foaming torrent rose in sight, and, as the opposite shores could not be distinguished at that early hour, and in consequence of the heavy mist which overhung them, the illusion was perfect which persuaded us that we were once more on the borders of the great Atlantic Sea. These curling, flashing, white billows, reeking up and rolling over, and wallowing one after another, upon the shore, were the combing surfs upon our sandy islets along the eastern coast. The illusion was wonderfully aided by the deep and solemn roar of the perpetually chiding billows. They were the identical voices of the sea that we heard—as if these themselves were not properly natives of the deep, but mountain voices, torn away from their proper homes, and perpetually wailing their exode in a chaunt which is mournful enough to be that of exile. It was only in the full breadth of day that we could scan the boundaries beyond, and justly appreciate the wild grandeur of the route along which we sped. Our road, an excellent one for the mountains, is cut out along the very margin of the river. Occasionally, there is no ledge to protect you from the steep. The track does not often admit of two carriages abreast; and huge, immovable boulders sometimes contract, to the narrowest measures, the pathway for the single one. You wind along the precipice with a perpetual sense of danger, which increases the sublimity of the scene. The river, meanwhile, boils and bounds, and rages at your feet, tossing in strange writhings over the fractured masses of the rock, plunging headlong, with a groan, into great cavities between, now fretting over a long line of barrier masses, now leaping, with a surging hiss, down sudden steppes, which it approaches unprepared. Beyond, you note the perpendicular heights, stern, dark, jagged, impending a thousand feet in air. You find yourself suddenly in a cavernous avenue. Look up, and behold an enormous boulder, thrust out from the mountain sides, hanging completely over you like a mighty Atlantean roof, but such a roof as threatens

momently to topple down in storm and thunder on your head. And thus, with a sense keenly alive to the startling aspects in the forms around you, the superior grandeur of the heights, the proof which they everywhere present that the volcano and the torrent have but recently done their work of convulsion and revolution, you hurry on for miles, relieved occasionally by scenes of a strangely sweet beauty in the stream;—when the waters subside to calm; when they no longer hiss, and boil, and rage, and rage, and roar, in conflict with the masses whose bonds they have broken; and when, leaping away into an even and unruffled flow, they seem to sleep in lakes whose edges bear fringes of flowery vines, and the loveliest floral tangles, from which you may pluck at seasons the purplest berries, drooping to the very lips of the waters. Sometimes, these seeming lakes gather about the prettiest islets, such as prompt you to fancy abodes such as the English fairies delighted to explore, and where, indeed, the Cherokee has placed a class of spirits, with strange mysterious powers, who were acknowledged to maintain a singular influence over the red man's destinies. A landscape painter, of real talent, would find along the two great stems of the French Broad, or Tselica, a thousand pictures, far superior to anything which Yankee manufacture has ever yet gathered from the banks of the Hudson, or the groups of the Catskill.

Of the Warm Springs, which still indicate the near neighborhood of those volcanic fires by which the passage of the Tselica was opened through its barrier mountains, Mr. Lanman might have made a pleasant chapter. But he gives us only a paragraph. These springs

"Are thirty-six miles from Asheville, and within six of the Tennessee line. There are several of them, the largest being covered with a house, and divided into two equal apartments, either one of which is sufficiently large to allow of a swim. The temperature of the water is 105 degrees, and it is a singular fact, that rainy weather has a tendency to increase the heat, but it never varies more than a couple of degrees. All the springs are directly on the southern margin of the French Broad; the water is clear as crystal, and so heavy that even a child may be thrown into it with little danger of being drowned. As a beverage, the water is quite palatable, and it is said that some people can drink a number of quarts per day, and yet experience none but beneficial effects. The diseases which it is thought to cure are palsy, rheumatism, and cutaneous affections. The Warm Springs are annually visited by a large number of fashionable and sickly people, from all the Southern States, and the proprietor has comfortable accommodations for two hundred and fifty people. His principal building is of brick, and the ball-room is 230 feet long. Music, dancing, flirting, wine-drinking, riding, bathing, fishing, scenery-hunting, bowling and reading, are all practiced here to an unlimited extent; but, what is more exciting than all these pleasures put together, is the rare sport of deer-hunting."

MOUNTAIN SCENES OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

We speed to Greenville, Spartanburg, or Pendleton, points from which you may diverge to a thousand spots of a scenery not surpassed in any of the sister States. On your route, you pause at Glenn's Springs, one of the most fashionable of the watering places of South-Carolina. These springs belong to the same family, the members of which are scattered throughout all the South, in parallel regions, from Virginia to Mississippi. They possess the same general characteristics, and are probably equally medicinal, being impregnated more or less with sulphur, magnesia and salts. At Glenn's Springs you will make the acquaintance of the gentry of the middle and upper country generally, with a slight sprinkling of others from the seaboard. The former are here in considerable numbers throughout the season. You will find them equally courteous, intelligent and frank; easy in their manners, and prompt and graceful in their hospitalities. From this point the transition is easy to Spartanburg, a region of perfect health throughout, lying beautifully for farming, and remarkably well settled. Here you find other medicinal waters, the Cedar, the Pacolet, Limestone and Sulphur Springs, each of which has its advocates, though their visitors are much less numerous than those of Glenn's. The Pacolet, and other falls and rapids, are objects of great curiosity; and the famous battle-field of the Cowpens affords a point of great attraction to him who loves to seek out the memorials of the Revolution. But, if the object be mountain scenery, the traveler will speed for Greenville, which lies adjoining, to the north and west. The village of this name is a beauty among villages, and its cascade of Reedy River, which skirts the settlement, affords numerous subjects for the painter. In the northeast angle of the district, however, you find bolder pictures, where the beautiful blends with the sublime, and impresses the imagination with images at once of the stupendous and the sweet.

The Hogback Mountain, a cragged and perilous ascent, that might find a more suitable name, is the first of a lordly brotherhood of heights, which enshrine a thousand scenes of the terrible and lovely. Adjoining it, we have the Glassy Mountain, so named because of the glazed beauty of its rocky sides, trickling with perpetual water, in the sunlight. The waters which flow from these mountains form the sources of the Tiger and the Pacolet. Here, also, you have the Saluda and Panther Mountains, and, above all, the wonderful rocky cliff and precipice of Cæsar's Head—a name given to it from a remarkable profile, which, at one view, the crag presents, of a human, which might be a Roman, face. Sachem's Head would

be much more appropriate to the aboriginal locality, as the profile is quite as proper to the Indian as the Roman type of face. As the name of the Indian priest in the Southern States was Iawa, this title would seem a not inappropriate one to the stern, prophet-like image which this rock affords. The mountain itself is an entire mass of granite, rising abruptly from the valley, through which a turbulent river hurries upon its way. From the precipice, on this quarter, you have one of the most magnificent prospects that the world can show. Standing upon the edge of the cliff, your eye courses, without impediment, to the full extent of its vision, leaving still regions beyond, which the fancy spreads out illimitably beneath your feet. Apart from the sublime emotions of such a scene, from such a spot, the sense of danger is enlivened when you discover that the mountain rises erect from a base seemingly quite too slender for its support, while an awful fissure divides the mass from top to bottom, detaching an immense mass, that threatens momently to go down in thunder upon the unconscious valley. The Head of Cæsar, or the Iawa, is in some peril of serious abrasion, if not demolition, in the natural progress of events.

But Pendleton is the district of South Carolina most affluent in curiosities of this description. The Table Rock is one of the wonders of the Apalachian range. It rears its colossal front of granite—an isolated mass, perpendicular as a wall—more than eleven hundred feet in height, with a naked face of more than six hundred feet. The precipice is on the eastern side. It is ascended, on this side, by means of a ladder or steps of wood, fastened with iron clamps to the stone, and with several stagings compassing the perpendicular height. You literally hang in air. You look down, with a shudder, upon the awful chasm a thousand feet below. Your ladder shakes—its steps are in decay—occasionally one has disappeared—and your heart sinks momentarily, rendering necessary the encouragements of your guide. The great black wall glistens with the descending streams, which the sun coins into brilliants as fast as they scatter into spray. Go below—look up—and your soul rises with the majesty of prayer.

GEORGIA SCENES AND SPRINGS.

Thus health, youth, beauty, taste and art, attended by song and sunshine, walk the faces of her mountains, and group themselves joyously about her fountains and her streams. Madison Springs are deservedly famous in the regards of Georgia. A fine house, well kept, and crowded usually with excellent company, makes it easy to forget Newport and Saratoga. It would task a more fruitful pen than ours to describe the variety of influences which serve to beguile the thousands who seek this place of resort, and forget the progress of time in the unceasing round of their enjoyments. The ball, the *pic nic*, the fete champetre, the soiree, the *tableaux vivans*, nightly, render life a charming illusion, as well for heart as fancy; and if the eye is permitted to see the dropping of the sands in the hour-glass, they are of gold and amber as they flow. The beauty of the wings of time, in this region, makes one heedless of his flight. Here was the best society in Georgia. Hither came her selectest circles. You might meet at the same moment the gravest signiors of the State, dignified sages of the long robe, yielding themselves to the fascinations of the most piquant of its fashionables; the stern man of public cares, revelling in the gardens of Armida, under the grateful despotism of the Faery Queene. Nor is Madison's Springs alone. It is only one of many places of like attraction, which, as our purpose is not a catalogue, we need not particularize. If the reader is curious, let him look to the second work in our rubric, the "Georgia Illustrated," which is a beautiful specimen of the arts in the South. Here he will find full and interesting details of much that is conspicuous in the resources and scenery of our lively and lovely sister. The volume of Mr. Lanman will also supply him with much information in respect to her scenery and characteristics. He gives sketches of Dahlonega, a region of equal health and beauty, to which the route of travel last season did not sufficiently incline—of the valley of Nagoochie, Mount Yonah, Clarksville—the cascade of Tuccoah, and the cataract of Tallulah.

2.—PROGRESS OF TEXAS.

Every day's accounts from this now flourishing centre of south-western emigration increase in interest. The California reaction is being felt in its favor, and so rapid is the growth of population, that in ten years Texas will be among the first of the South ern States. The emigrants are of an enterprising class, intelligent, and in good circumstances. Many have held leading positions in society and in politics in the old States. Whatever may have been our views upon the *Ten Million* purchase, there can be no doubt such a purse, in liquidating the State indebtedness, and in promoting, as we hope it will, internal improvements, must give a new life to the commonwealth. We have published many papers in our volumes showing the agricultural facilities, especially in sugar and cotton, of this State, and have several others promised. We beg our friends there to give us elaborate communications upon any matters which may pertain to their advancement.

The papers speak in encouraging terms of the growth of GALVESTON and HOUSTON.

"According to the uniform testimony of all, Houston was never in a more prosperous condition than at the present time. A large amount of business has been done there during the past two months. The streets are represented as continually crowded with wagons, and the side-walks with bales of goods passing incessantly from the stores to the wagons. Some of the accounts given of the amount of sales, especially by the house of Rice & Nichols, would seem almost incredible. We are glad to hear of this high degree of commercial prosperity of our neighboring city, for we consider it a true exponent of the increasing wealth and agricultural productions of the country. It is true, the long protracted drought has greatly favored Houston, serving to concentrate at that point much more than the usual proportion of the country trade, and to diminish the trade at this place nearly in the same ratio. Still there has been sold in Galveston a very large amount of merchandize, though under great disadvantages. But the trade here has been confined principally to our heavier houses, and has partaken of the character of a wholesale business more than in former years."

MATAGORDA, which is in the heart of a rich agricultural region, also flourishes.

"Buildings are springing up in every direction, as it were with the touch of a magician's wand, and we can scarcely turn our eyes in any direction, that we do not see evident tokens of the spirit of enterprise afloat. There have already, within the past year, been erected several elegant buildings, which would do credit to a more aristocratic city than our own, with several others in the course of erection; among the latter of which is a spacious and beautiful hotel, by our friend J. W. McCamly, Esq. From its pretty location, healthful position, and many advantages possessed as a residence as well as commercial emporium, Matagorda promises at no distant day to become one of the largest and prettiest towns in Texas. Situated in the midst of a large planting district, unsurpassed for the great staple products of the South, her commercial inducements must secure to her a permanent prosperity, which the fluctuations of trade and spirit of competition cannot easily subvert. Our citizens seem to be fully aroused to these truths, and the gloom and doubt which for years past hung over their minds on this question, have been fully and finally dispelled, and an invigorating spirit is predominant throughout. Upon the whole, our auspices are highly encouraging."

The *culture of the vine* begins now to attract attention. The imported grapes, it is said, will all rot, but the native will make the finest wines.

"I have collected *twelve* kinds of wild grapes which surpass the imported in sweetness, durability and productiveness. Their cultivation is easy, and the scaffolding cheap. The vines readily embrace and entwine around the trees and bushes for their support. They are divided into two classes —the summer and fall grapes—and yield fresh, ripe fruit from the first of June to the last of November. They are of all colors. Three hundred square feet of surface will yield four whiskey-barrels of round grapes for market, or sixty gallons of wine, with six gallons of the best brandy.

"In scaffolding the vineyard with trellises 7 feet high, 100 feet long, and 10 feet apart, half an acre will be covered by ten trellises. Every 30 feet long of trellis will give a surface of three hundred square feet, producing four barrels of round grapes, as stated before. Or 100 feet of trellis will yield 13 barrels; and 10 trellises of the same length, 130 barrels, or 520 bushels of grapes for market, or 1,950 gallons of wine and 60 gallons of brandy. The produce, therefore, of half an acre, will be—

530 bushels of grapes, which, at $5 per bushel, will give	$2,600
If made into wine, the result will be, 1,950 gallons of wine, at $1 per gallon	1,950
The brandy, 60 gallons, at $2 per gallon	120
Total	$2,070"

3.—REPORTS OF THE FEDERAL DEPARTMENT.

We present, as worthy of preservation for future reference, digests of the late annual reports emanating from the Executive Department of our government, and regret that we have not more space to bestow upon them.

THE TREASURY.

Balance in Treasury 1st July, 1850, $6,604,544 49; Receipts (estimated) of year to June 30, 1851, including old balance $54,312,594 49; Expenditures, $53,853,597 50 Balance on hand, $450,896 99; Estimated receipts to June 30, 1851, $47,258,936 99; Expenses, $48,124,993 18; Deficit, 1st July, 1852, $865,996 19, exclusive of Texan Boundary stock.

Mr. Corwin makes the war alone responsible for the enormous expenditure. For seven years previous to it, the expenses were $149,660,345 52, and for the next seven years, $294,807,407 95. Expenses chargeable directly to the war, including

territory purchased, and exclusive of numerous claims not presented, $217,175,575 89.

Much space is devoted to frauds upon the revenue, growing out of the valuation system now adopted, which, with all its defects, we fear is the best practical system. The kind and character of frauds attempted are too familiar to need any mention.

Mr. Corwin discusses again the old *balance of trade* doctrine, and calls up the phantom which has frightened for centuries past certain statesmen from their propriety, and which, it seems, with all the labors of the economists, has only been "scotched, not killed." He anticipates an importation during the coming year of $250,000,000, against an exportation not exceeding $152,000,000—an alarming *balance*, and recommends the following changes in the tariff:

1. A change in the present ad valorem system, which should impose specific duties upon all articles to which such duties may be safely applied, with home valuations upon all such as are necessarily subject to ad valorem rates.

2. If the principle of specific duties shall not be adopted, that the home valuation, instead of the foreign, should then be applied to all imports subject to ad valorem duties.

3. If neither of the foregoing changes shall be thought proper, then it is deemed highly necessary that the present rate of duties should be increased on a great variety of articles, which it will be found could bear such increase with the most salutary effects upon both trade and revenue.

A corps of traveling appraisers to visit the different ports is recommended, and also that the time allowed in stores be extended to three years, with the privilege of re export without duties, etc.

THE NAVY.

The Secretary says that our flag has been respected on every sea, and that the interests of commerce have been secure under its protection. The Navy consists of 7 ships of the line, 1 razee, 12 frigates, 21 sloops of war, 4 brigs, 2 schooners, 5 steam frigates, 3 steamers of the first class, 6 steamers of less than first class, and 5 store ships. The ships in commission are, 1 razee, 6 frigates, 15 sloops of war, 4 brigs, 2 schooners, (coast survey,) 2 steam frigates, 1 steamer of the first class, 3 less than first class, 3 ships of the line as receiving ships, 1 steamer do., and 1 sloop do. Four ships of the line and two frigates are on the stocks in process of construction, but the work suspended. Besides these, there are the mail steamships on the New-York and Liverpool, and New-York and Chagres lines, liable to naval duty in case of necessity.

The Secretary notices the improvements going on in the Navy Yards in Philadelphia and other places; states that he has invited proposals for the construction of a Dry Dock in the Pacific; says that the stores on hand in the various yards amount to $6,500,000 in value; and discusses the question of reducing the number of yards, which he declines recommending at present, and depending on private contracts for the construction of ships.

The existing *personnel* of the Navy embraces 68 captains, 97 commanders, 327 lieutenants, 68 surgeons, 37 passed assistant surgeons, 43 assistant surgeons, 64 pursers, 24 chaplains, 12 professors of mathematics, 11 masters in the line of promotion, 464 passed and other midshipmen, and 7,500 petty officers, seamen, landsmen, boys, etc. The Secretary says that this system of officers is unshapely and disproportioned, there being a great disparity between the head and the subordinate parts, and he recommends a reduction in the three higher grades. The report discusses a variety of other questions respecting the organization and distribution of the service; all of which are worthy of attention, but can only be properly appreciated by a reference to the report.

The vessels of the Navy are distributed into six different squadrons. 1. The *Home* squadron, Com. Parker, operating from the Banks of Newfoundland to the mouth of the Amazon river. The principal service performed by this squadron during the past year was the preventing of the invasion of Cuba. 2. The *Pacific* squadron, Com. M'Cauley, three vessels of which are cruising between Cape Horn and Panama, and the rest north of the Equator. 3. The *Brazilian* squadron, Com. McKeever, cruises from the mouth of the Amazon to Cape Horn, and occasionally to the African coast, has been engaged in suppressing the slave trade, and the protection of our rights in South America. 4. The *Mediterranean* squadron, Com. Morgan, is actively engaged in the various ports of the Mediterranean Sea. 5. The squadron on the coast of Africa, Com. Gregory, is engaged in breaking up the slave trade. 6. The *East India and China* squadron, Com. Geisinger, seems to be looking out for the purpose of establishing commercial intercourse with the Asiatics.

THE POST OFFICE.

The number of mail routes within the United States, at the end of June last, is 5590, extending over 178,672 miles, and employing 4760 contractors. The annual transportation of the mails on these routes was 46,541,423, at an annual cost of $2,724,426, making the average cost about five cents and eight and a half mills per mile. The increase of the number of inland mail routes during the year was 649, extending over 10,939 miles, at an increased cost of $342,-440. On the last of June there were five foreign mail routes, on an aggregate length of 15,079 miles, and involving a Government

expenditure of $264,506, exclusive of the cost of mail messengers and agents, amounting to $107,042. The number of postmasters appointed during the year was 6518, of whom 2600 were appointed to supply resignations, 233 to supply vacancies by death, 262 by reason of change of the sites of the offices, 1444 on account of removals, 1919 to fill new offices. The whole number of post offices in the country was 18,417. During the year, 1979 have been established, and 309 discontinued. The gross revenue of the Department for the year was $5,552,-971 48, of which $4,575,663 86 accrued from letters. The expenses were $5,212,-053 42, leaving an excess in favor of the Department of $340,018 05, and making all of its available funds $1,132,046 82. The expenses for mail contracts have increased in all sections of the country, but particularly in the West. The increase of income, from the receipts of postage, was 11,27-100 per cent; for 1848 was 7,43-100 per cent; for 1849 was 14 20-100 per cent; for 1850 was 14¾ per cent. It is estimated that the increase for the next year will be at least 11 per cent., and that the excess of the receipts over the expenditures will be $146,-806 28. Sixteen mail steamers are in service in maintaining the communication between the Atlantic and the Pacific. The Secretary recommends that measures should be taken to regulate the mail service with the West Indies and South America, and to systematize the service of California and Oregon. He recommends a reduction of the inland letter postage to a uniform rate of three cents, pre-paid, and five cents not prepaid, and that the Postmaster General be empowered to make a further reduction to two cents, whenever, after the present proposed reductions, the revenues of the Department shall have exceeded its expenditure for two consecutive years, five per cent. He also recommends that a reduction to twenty cents be made on correspondence to and from the Pacific coast, South America, the Eastern continent and its islands, and points beyond either, and to ten cents on all other sea-going letters, except when the rates shall be otherwise fixed by postal treaties. He recommends a reduction on the postage of newspapers sent out of the States to one cent, and also a reduction upon pamphlets, periodicals, &c. These reductions, he calculates, will diminish the revenues of the Department for three or four years, and the deficit must be met by the surplus used in the hands of the Department, and by appropriations by Congress. He thinks the franking privilege should be retained, but that the Department should be paid from the Treasury for the transmission of all free matter.

THE WAR OFFICE.

The aggregate strength of the army, as at present established by law, is 12,329 officers and men. It is estimated that the number of men actually in service and fit for duty, from deaths, discharges, desertions, sickness and other casualties, falls short of the legal organization on an average of from 30 to 40 per cent.; so that the above number would present an effective force of only from 8,400 to 8,700 men. Of the whole number, 7,796 are stationed in, or are under orders for Texas, New Mexico, California, and Oregon; leaving only 4,530 in all the rest of the States and Territories.

The Secretary urges the necessity of employing a cavalry force to curb the mounted Indians of Texas and New Mexico; and suggests the adoption of some system, dictated equally by policy and humanity, for reclaiming the whole unfortunate race, by inducing them to abandon their wandering and predatory life, to live in villages, and resort to agricultural pursuits for subsistence. The statement of the enormous cost of transporting pork and flour for the use of the troops in New Mexico, affords a strong evidence of the benefit which the republic would derive, in a mere pecuniary light, from restoring peace and security to the herdsman and husbandman of a territory, "a large portion of which is susceptible of producing crops of grain, and nearly all of which is well adapted to grazing."

PUBLIC LANDS.

The Report of the Commissioners of the General Land Office, not yet published, contains full and interesting details respecting the public domain. We learn from the Washington Republic that the whole quantity of lands sold and disposed of during the year 1848, including that located by military bounties, State selections, &c., was 4,933,-009 acres, amounting, at $1.25 per acre, to $6,428,435. For 1845, 5,184,410 acres were disposed of in like manner, amounting at the same rate, to $6,575,625. And for three quarters of 1850, exclusive of the bounty locations not yet returned for the third quarter, 2,815,366 acres were disposed of, amounting, at the rate stated, to $3,562,041.

A most valuable and interesting item in the report, is the statement showing the area and cost of the public lands and revenue derived from them.

From that statement, it appears that the whole area of the public lands exclusive of those in Oregon, California, New Mexico, Utah, the Indian and Nebraska Territories, was 424,103,750 acres. That of these about one-fourth have been sold for the sum of $135,339,092, while the whole cost of every kind to the Government, including the amount paid to France for Louisiana, to Spain for the Floridas, and for the extinguishment of the Indian title, was $74,957,-879, making the nett profit to the Government $60,381,213, or an average of nearly one and a quarter millions of dollars annually for the last fifty years.

Nearly the same amount has been granted

in bounties, for works of internal improvements, &c.

It further appears, that the average cost of the public lands, including the purchase, extinguishing the Indian title, surveying, selling, and managing, &c., is only 21 4-5 cents per acre; while for each acre the Government receives $1 25 per acre—making a net profit of $103 1-5 cents per acre.

THE HOME OFFICE.

The estimates for the various branches of the public service within the jurisdiction of this Department, for the approaching year, reach the large amount of $7,132,043 47; being an excess over the estimates for the current year of $1,728,670 63. The increase arises principally from the enlarged expense of Indian affairs and the pension list; for which the estimates are respectively, $1,-441,472 66 and $2,644,726 31.

The number of claims for warrants under the late bounty land laws, up to Nov. 5th, was 9,418, and it is rapidly increasing. The whole number of persons who, if living, would be entitled to the benefit of the law, the Secretary says would exceed half a million; and he estimates that the number of claimants will be about 250,000.

Of the whole lands there were disposed of 5,184,410,91 acres; of which 1,320,902 77 were sold, and 3,405,520,00 located on bounty land warrants. For the three quarters of 1850, the quantity disposed of has been 2,815,366,42 acres; 869,682,32 sold, and 1,520,120,00 located on warrants.

The Secretary urges the importance of a national highway to the Pacific, within our own territory, from the valley of the Mississippi to the western coast, and the necessity of obtaining full and accurate information as to the shortest and best route, having reference not only to distance, but also to the soil, climate, and adaptation to agricultural purposes of the intermediate country.

He renews the recommendation of his predecessor for the establishment of an agricultural bureau, and advises the institution of a model farm at Mount Vernon, "whose soil was once tilled by the hands, and is now consecrated by the dust, of the Father of his Country."

4.—POPULATION OF THE STATES, 1850—CONTRAST OF THE NORTH AND THE SOUTH.

As soon as the census returns are complete, we shall make many abstracts from them, and present to our readers a variety of interesting information, relating to the population and resources of the country. In the meanwhile we give the following as the returns of population in a few states. The state of Georgia has since been ascertained to reach 1,000,000 against about 600,000 in 1840:

	1850.	1840.	Increase.
Minnesota	6.139	(new.)	6,139
Arkansas (St. cens)	198,796	97,574	101,222
South Carolina	639,099	594,398	44,701
Rhode Island	147,543	108,830	38,713
Indiana	1,250,000	658,886	591,114
Wisconsin	305,121	30,752	264,369
Ohio	2,150,000	1,519,167	630,833
North Carolina	850,900	753,419	96,581
Massachusetts	1,000,000	779,828	220,772
Missouri	672,000	383,702	288,298
Pennsylvania	2,400,000	1,724,033	675,967
Maine	583,026	501,736	81,290
Connecticut	375,000	310,015	64,985
Vermont	312,656	291,498	21,158
Virginia	1,400,000	1,239.797	60,203
Kentucky	972,606	779,828	162,788
Utah	20,000	(new)	20,000
California	200,000	(new)	200,000
Oregon	10,000	(new)	10,000
District Columbia.	54,000	43,712	10,288
	13,545,986	9,817,235	

Remarking upon the results which have thus far been given, the Mobile Tribune indulges some reflections which are elevated and sound. They correspond with opinions we have frequently expressed in our Review, and we are but too happy to extract them at large.

One of the most striking facts of the times is the great increase in the population of Georgia, as denoted by the recent census. It exceeds that of any state in the Union, and has been since 1840, forty-five per centum.

We should like to know exactly the cause of this great change. Whether it is a cause or a consequence of diversified industrial pursuits, or whether it results from the central situation of the state, would be something which it would be agreeable to know.

One thing, however, it does prove, namely, that slave institutions are not necessarily anti-progressive in their effects on wealth and population. Down-east the "philanthropists," with averted eyes and much self-complacency, declare that slavery is antagonistic to all progress, material as well as moral; that the North owes its augmented population to its levelling system—according to the theory of which, nobody is better than any other body.

We are willing to subscribe to this opinion, but also doubt whether its boasted increase is really progression. Are there less crime and misery and more morality and comfort in the North than there were twenty years ago?—Does the increase of its aggregate wealth and population denote a more general diffusion of individual plenty; more happiness; a higher refinement, and a superior religious and moral tone of public sentiment? No man can doubt that in these things the North has retrograded.

Let us come South, and apply this test to its people, and the result will indicate a most

striking change towards improvement. Religion is more generally respected and practised among us than it was twenty years ago; education is more diffused; violence and crime are much less common; refinement has grown into familiarity in places hitherto rude and almost barbarous. Want—no such thing is known among us. We have no paupers—no beggars, except the few who have been sent to some of our seaport towns by importation. No man is destitute—no true manhood among us is put to shifts which shock its self-respect and degrade it. Every man stands up independently, a true man, not ground down to the lowest self-abasement by the "progress" which is the boast, and to us the evil, of many other communities.

For our own part, we have no sort of confidence in the gauge of progress laid down generally by the statists. We would rather, if the South had no motive for self-protection in making itself numerically strong in the confederacy, that the population of our states should rather fall behind their present rate of progress. Running hand in hand with this "progress," we see want and vice and the elements which will work its ruin. In the South we see real progress in every thing, and particularly in those higher qualities which are as well the honor of individuals as of aggregated people. We are content with this, and would not exchange it for all the overgrown cities and heated manufacturing districts that are possessed by New and old England.

What is called national greatness is a great human fallacy. The greatness, in the ordinary acceptation of the word, of states, is acquired by the degradation of the mass of their individual citizens. How great is Russia! and how insignificant is the little Republic of San Marino! Yet who would exchange the happiness of the people of the one for that of the serfs of the other? As an individual man, is it a better thing for me that the state should have ten millions of people, half of whom are constantly on the verge of want, than one million, all of whom are filled with plenty? Nations, as all history shows, are always greatest—in the ordinary phrase—when they are verging towards decay. Rome was never so full of misery as when her name was a signal of terror throughout the world. The greatness of the state was the result of the debasement of the individuals who composed it. England is somewhat like Rome, but, in poverty, as nine-tenths of its people are, who would not prefer the home of a Switzer to all the glory which is reflected by the power of the nation on her poor, poverty-stricken individual subjects?

5.—HOME EDUCATION AT THE SOUTH.

An important part of the reform which is now being preached on the house-tops in every part of the South, must be considered the subject of *Home Education*. If the child be "father to the man," it ought, assuredly, to be our care to protect him from influences which the man may hereafter deprecate. But what, after all, is the fact? We find throughout the Northern States a current of popular opinion, extending throughout all classes, gaining every day in intensity, attacking and dividing the churches, developing itself in literature, presiding over the press, discussed in the schools, argued in the forum, potent at the polls, clamorous and inveterate in the national halls, threatening annihilation to the South, or if the other alternative be preferred, a violent disruption of the Federal Union; and it is just precisely into this hot-bed of political heresy and "higher law," that we are hurrying our children, the moment they have assumed the *toga virilis*, if not much earlier, to be trained to the duties of manhood, the rights of republicanism, and the defences of their fire-sides, their altars and their homes. There they go, crowding Dartmouth and Harvard, and Brown and Yale, and Amherst and Middlebury, and Hamilton,—the sons of the men who have raised throughout all the South a storm they cannot still, and carried into Africa a war to be ended God only knows when.

This is *Southern consistency*, and it is thus that the North wisely laughs at our silly boastings, which end with the breath that utters them. *They* make the songs, and may well be indifferent if *we* have a part of the laws.* Granted that our institutions of learning are inferior in endowment and celebrity, and for argument, even inferior in scholastic attainments and merit, which last, if true, would make the humiliation of the South still greater, better would it be for us that our sons remained in honest ignorance and at the plough-handle, than that their plastic minds be imbued with doctrines subversive of their country's peace and honor, and at war with the very fundamental principles upon which the whole superstructure of the society they find *at home* is based, and has been based through all the memories of their fathers before them! Would we poi-

* "Let me but make the songs (i. e., the literature) of a people," says the wise man, "and I care not who shall have the making of their laws."

son the fountain of its source when so many millions are to drink of it? Would we encourage *doubt* and *distrust* when, upon *faith* and *confidence*, under God, the salvation of generations to come must rest? Wiser that the Christian father train his son to theology at the feet of a Shaftesbury, or that the Protestant make a mission to St. Peter's, to be confirmed in the faith of the Reformers. It was on *his own altar* that Hamilcar swore the young Hannibal to an eternal war upon Roman aggression, and our British ancestors did not leave their work half done in settling the succession to the crown, by omitting to protect the infancy of their sovereigns from influences inimical to the religion and the liberties of the realm.

But it is not true that the South has not the means, even now, of educating her children in her own midst, to the highest achievements of scholarship and learning, though an immense field for improvement is still open before her. Is not the fame of her Legare, a *home graduate*, as wide as that of Everett? Who has surpassed her Preston and McDuffie in oratory, or her Elliott in science? Have her *home-taught* statesmen been other than proud ornaments of the nation, or is she always so secure from the perfidy and treachery that strikes the breast which afforded nourishment, that she care not whence the teachings of her statesmen be derived?

We raise then the cry of reform and *Home Education*, and pledge our work to the great service of urging upon the South the establishment and support of institutions of learning, which shall be second to none in America. We are a wealthy and a strong people, and have only to will great deeds to see them accomplished. *Begin the work to-day*. Henceforward the South will wean her children unnaturally no more—she will be as well the instructor as the parent—she will guide them to light, and knowledge, and *truth*, and find in that pious mission her own salvation.

To aid in this salutary reform, we will publish in our next (not having space at present), a list of the different institutions of learning, so far as we are enabled to procure them, in all of the Southern States. As the statistics are a year or two old, it is possible there are many corrections to be made, and much to be added. Let our friends assist us to make it perfect. We would even go further, to chronicle the name of leading academies, so that throughout all the limits of our States it may be known what we are doing, and what we are capable of doing, and that no one may have the justification of ignorance in his defence. It is our wish that The Review shall contain a permanent record of Southern schools and colleges,—and education movements, in general.

6.—PUBLIC LANDS AT THE SOUTH.

We have more than once of late declared our conviction, that the national domain would become the prize of political factions and parties, and be introduced among the other *spoils* to be contended for every four years on the great Presidential battle-field. "Free land" and a farm to any one that will have it, will become as popular watch-cries among us as free soil, or as *liberté, egalité, fraternité*, among the red republicans of Paris. *La proprieté c'est la val*, will be a material step in the same progression, and men shall hear, before the century is out, more than faint mutterings of it. We sow the storm to reap the whirlwind.

A writer in the New-York Commercial Advertiser, admits the fact, that throughout all the *free* states the sentiment of "free land" is becoming immensely popular, and with great candor gives the reason of it, and the great end which is to be consummated.

States.	Area of States in acres.	Owned by States.	Owned by Gen. Government.
Missouri	43,123,200	14,212,190	28,911,010
Alabama	32,462,080	15,214,048	17,248,032
Mississippi	30,174,080	18,480,377	11,693,703
Louisiana	29,715,840	8,790,282	20,925,558
Arkansas	33,406,720	6,149,755	27 256,765
Florida	37,931,520	4,414,255	33 817,265
Aggregate	206,813,240	67,960,907	139,852,333

Area of the six slave-holding States, 206,913,240
Owned thereof by the General Government, ... 139,852,333
Owned by the States in their State capacity, ... 67,960,907

Thus, in the slave States the General Government still holds the proprietary of 139,913,240 acres. These are to be colonized by *northern free-soilers*, to whom every facility is to be granted, in order that they may soon acquire the majority in each, control its legis-

lation, *and consign slavery to the tomb of the Capulets!*

"The population of the States alluded to, in 1790, and that in 1840, shows an increase so trifling, compared with that of the Northern States of the Union, that it would require five hundred years for the States themselves to occupy the unemployed lands with a population as dense as that of any of the rural districts of Great Britain. Unable or indisposed to purchase the domain themselves, (and a Northern speculator finds his prejudices superior to his interests in this respect,) the lands must remain in their primitive wastes, or become the homes of the worthy settler, whose repugnance to slavery need not prevent him from accepting as a gratuity that in which he is unwilling to invest capital. Now look at the consequences to the States respectively. The influx of this species of population would change the tone of the present minority to a great majority, and the institution of slavery would be abolished in twenty years. For instance, Arkansas contains 33,406,720 square acres of territory; of this the State owns only 6,149,755 acres, and the General Government 27,256,765 acres. Her population now is 97,574. Who will doubt that if a donation bill were passed at the present session, in five years Arkansas would contain 200,000 free-soilers to outvote this minority of 97,574? Now let us look at the present population of these six States, the slave-holding increase, according to the landed capacity of the State, and the free-soil increase, according to the area allowed by the Government domain.

Present population exclusive of slaves, 1,222,121

	State.	Gen. Government.
Capacity for increase at the rate of 100 to the square mile	10,622,000	
Capacity for increase at same rate		21,851,900

"Or double the shareholding increase; and while the latter are multiplying their hundreds, the former will be multiplyipg their thousands."

7.—LONGEVITY OF THE NEGRO NORTH AND SOUTH.

An intelligent and able friend in New-England writes us as follows:

"I have an impression, founded, it is true, upon limited observations, that the free negro is shorter lived, enjoys less vital force, and is more immoral than the slave, or the whites; and if we desired to exterminate the race, one means of doing it would be to set them at liberty. It would give me great pleasure if I had a sufficient number of facts to discuss this matter as a fact. Could they be obtained if proper inquiries were instituted? If so, at a proper time I would prepare a paper for you. I allude to this matter now as a private affair, but I should like to correspond with some one competent to afford me the information I desire."

We suggest to our friend the name of Dr. J. C. Nott, of Mobile, as one which has connected itself for several years with these investigations. Dr. Nott wrote an article in our Review upon the subject, and has incorporated many facts in his volume upon the *Races of Men*. We should be pleased to occupy our pages at all times with the discussion. It is in the power of gentlemen at the North to give as much light if they will. It has ever been a fault with the Massachusetts returns, as well as the statistics of other States at the North, that they do not separate the whites from the blacks, and thus, with all their minuteness, they give us but little light. At the South the fault is, that we neglect the statistics of both races.

Dr. E. M. Pendleton, of Sparta, Georgia, thus expresses himself in the March (1851) number of the Medical Journal of New-Orleans—his paper being intended for our friend Fenner's *Southern Medical Reports*:

"This table proves beyond doubt, that the mulatto is much shorter lived than either of the unmixed races. Thus, only four in one thousand reach seventy years, to 16.1 of the black, and 22.6 of the white. A similar ratio is maintained throughout. It is true, that the disparity may be somewhat greater, owing to the short period of time since the two races have intermixed, making individual cases of longevity among the mulattoes rarer than it might otherwise be; but apart from the exhibit of this table, it has become almost proverbial among physicians, that the mulatto is more subject to certain forms of incurable disease, and succumbs more rapidly to the invasion of others, than either of the pure races. But it seems that while there are many more centenarians among the blacks than the whites, they are not, taken as a whole, so long lived. Whether this is owing to a critical period in the life of the negro, as with the female, or that the centenarians are the last of the native Africans who were brought to this country, and have not felt the blighting effects of civilization which has shortened the lives of their degenerate sons, I cannot say, but am rather disposed to take the last as the most philosophical view. If this be true, we may expect, in a few more years, that extreme cases of longevity will predominate among the whites.

8.—ENTERPRISES OF NEW-ORLEANS.

Under our Commercial head in Feb. Number we chronicled a movement among us for the establishment of a line of steamers to Liverpool; and the notice had hardly been handed to the printer before the daily press came out with a kindred announcement of a line from *New-Orleans to New-York*. This

must, indeed, be an age of improvement, when the dry bones of New-Orleans can be shaken, and the spirit of enterprise be found brooding over even her stagnant pools. Yet we have too little faith to be led away by mere "resolutions," and have learned from experience to distrust profession. A city which cannot raise, without Herculean efforts and stirring public appeals, the comparatively insignificant sum, for at the moment we write, it is not yet done, which shall cause to rise from its ruins the glory of her prime, the *St. Charles*; which has subscribed but a few hundred dollars to the Jackson railroad, and some thousands, we have not learned how *few*, to the Tehuantepec route; which has no manufactories; is connected with the North by a mail, which fails more times than it comes through, and for several days together; which is broken up into rival governments, with great taxation and small improvements; such a city will find it very hard to inspire the world with any great hopes of its early amendment. God grant that even this seeming impossibility may be *conquered*.

The following are the particulars of the

STEAM-SHIP LINE.

A meeting of the subscribers of the New-Orleans and New-York steamers, was convened at the counting room of Messrs. Maunsel, White & Co., on Saturday evening, 25th inst.

On motion, Horace C. Cammack, Esq., was appointed President, and H. G. Heartt, Secretary.

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed by the Chair to make rules and regulations for the government of the Association, and receive the notes of the subscribers for the instalments as submitted, and they be authorized to have the contracts entered into by the agent in New-York.

Resolved, That due notice shall be given of all meetings of the subscribers to the Association. That five shall form a quorum for the transaction of business.

Resolved, That the Association shall be known as the New-Orleans and New-York Steam-ship Line.

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed by the Chair, to have the few remaining shares subscribed for in the first steamer, and open books of subscription for the second steamer.

Resolved, That at the next meeting, or as soon as practicable, an election shall be entered into for five Directors, to manage with the agents the affairs of the Association. They shall be elected by ballot, each share in person, or by proxy, being entitled to one vote.

RE-BUILDING OF THE ST. CHARLES.

This classic, proud and massive structure, —an ornament to American architecture, which gave a character to the place it embellished, like that of the Vatican or St. Peter's, or St. Paul's, being now a mass of huge and misshaped ruins, much public sentiment had been elicited, and several meetings of the citizens have determined upon its re-construction. But capitalists, though they may shed *tears*, place a different value upon *doubloons*, as is evinced by their tardy and interrupted subscriptions; and if the *sentiment* be allowed to die, we fear the area of the St. Charles will, in the event, be covered by a series of "respectable bar-rooms" and *ten pin alleys*; or, if Phœnix come again from the ashes, it will be such a different Phœnix, that they who look upon it, like the Hebrew fathers who gazed upon the Temple of Jerusalem, after its rebuilding, and remembered the glories of the old structure, now lost and gone forever, will "lift up their eyes and weep!"

The following are the report and resolutions of the committee:—

The committee appointed on the 20th inst., to ascertain upon what terms the site, foundation, &c., of the St. Charles Hotel can be procured—

Your committee respectfully report, that they have conferred with the principal holders of stock in the St. Charles Hotel Company, who have offered to sell the whole number of outstanding shares (say 12,375) at five dollars per share, as per annexed proposition received from them.

This will (if accepted) put us in possession of a good title to the lot and foundations, and also the charter of the Company, subject only to the mortgage on the lot of $94,000, which matures in May, 1855.

Believing that the acceptance of this proposition will be the most feasible plan for carrying out the great object of this meeting, the speedy re-erection of the stately St. Charles Hotel, your committee respectfully offer the following resolutions:—

1st. *Resolved*, That the chairman appoint a committee of three, to inform the present stockholders that their proposition is accepted, on condition that a sufficient amount of stock is subscribed to carry out the objects of this meeting, and that *all* the present shareholders concur.

2d. *Resolved*, That the chairman appoint a committee of fifty, to solicit subscription for fifteen thousand shares of the stock of the St. Charles Hotel Company at $25, payable $5 cash, $5 in a note at two months, $5 in a note at four months, $5 in a note at nine

months, and the remaining $5 to be subject to the call of the directors thereafter.

3d. *Resolved*, That so soon as the committee have their subscriptions filled up to 15,000 shares, they shall call a meeting of the subscribers thereto, for the purpose of consummating the arrangement with the present stockholders, and taking such steps as may be necessary for the erection of the Hotel.

9.—FIAT JUSTITIA, RUAT CŒLUM.

Our neighbor of the *N. O. Bulletin*, in his editorial columns, last month, incorporated the following sentiments, for which we honor him. Would that such liberality were more frequent from the press!

Charleston furnishes another striking evidence of this spirit of enterprise and progress, which is so generally animating all the Atlantic cities. Engrossed as are the people of South Carolina, and as they have been, since 1832, in their own peculiar politics, they have not neglected the interest of their seaport.

We will, *en passant*, instance as proof of this devotion to the interest of their metropolis, these two facts: The interior of Carolina is connected with Charleston by 271 miles of railroad, and Charleston is connected *outwardly*, by lines of steamships, with New-York, Philadelphia, (or was a short time since) Wilmington, and Savannah, and will be in a few months, as we have already taken occasion to notice, with Liverpool.

Charleston is the Mecca of every Carolinian; if he does not, as a part of his religion, turn his face towards it in his devotion, it is the first and absorbing object of his love and pride. This is a noble trait in a Carolinian; we may abhor his politics, but we must honor and respect his love for his State. It is a principle (for with every citizen of South Carolina, the attachment to his State is not an evanescent passion, but a principle deserving all praise and imitation. It is, moreover, a principle that often checks us when we feel disposed to comment with harshness upon the extravagant, ideal and fallacious views which have obscured the judgment of their public men, and led them to the commission of many follies, upon the question of their federal relations. Carolina is factious and revolutionizing, and yet we fully believe that she will never be down to the extremity of separating from her sister States, for she well knows, maugre all the declarations of her politicians, that secession will involve her in irretrievable ruin. But however this may be, should she pursue the foolish part, and cut loose from the Union, she will adopt this extreme measure from the convictions that the honor and interest of the State demand the sacrifice.

10.—PLACE D'ARMES—NEW-ORLEANS.

This is really a most imposing public square, and, when completed, will be one of the finest in the Union. On either side, the elegant architectural structures of Madame Pontalba, give a bold trace of modern life to that antique portion of the city. Then the new Cathedral, which is rearing its head so proudly in its view of the river! When the old structure was torn down many of the *ancient regime* of Orleans wept. It seemed even to us a profanation, for we remembered how it had affected us, when, a younger man than now, we first visited it, and noted in our diary a page—as thus:

The early dawn streamed faintly through the vaulted aisles of the old Cathedral which looks darkly and gloomily down upon the open area of the *Place d'Armes*. There is something stately and solemn in the mouldering walls of that old building. I have stood and gazed upon it as it stands there and tells of generations that are gone—the old Cathedral, with its massive proportions, its arches and its towers. Time has marked it strongly, and the race of yore who loved it most have gone now. Priest and populace—they have been changing and passing away—but there are worshipers yet around the altar, and the old Cathedral, in stern rebuke of human pride, is there still with its thousand hallowed memories. * * * * * * The girl heeds not the damps of the early morn. She has been taught to reverence the precincts, and in the freshness of youth and beauty, her pure spirit seeks a higher communion than with the things of earth. I have marked her footsteps upon the threshold of that high arch. She trips lightly onward, but with serious and composed features. Her tiny fingers dip in the consecrated element, and pass the rapid cross over her brow and her bosom. And whilst I look, two little boys and a girl, mere infants, with a black nurse, have entered. The children understand the mystic rite, and their little fingers are not idle with the sacred water. The old nurse has tottered along too—emaciated and haggard and on the verge of another world, she is not touched by the pomp and the ceremony. She marks not—heeds not the gathering crowd. I see her stand at the sacred basin with her eyes fixed upon the crucifix and the dim tapers that burn before it. I see her bow and her lips mutter, and her bosom heaves—she moves not now, and in that attitude I mark a decayed offspring of Time and Earth reaching upward in spirit to eternity and God. * * * * * * This is the hour of Prayer. * * * Not a breath rises above the solemn stillness of the hour. Kneeling in the deep recesses of that awful temple—

old men with whitened locks, vigorous manhood, youths, tender maidens and infancy—the sable offspring of benighted Africa mingled in the throng—kneeling there, of all ranks and conditions, of all climes and of all tongues—kneeling together in one solemn morning sacrifice in that vast cathedral. * * * * There may be error and delusion in all this—but God knows as I stand alone amongst these people—I, a *Protestant* and a stranger, with guilt and error and sin enough to atone for, whatever my faith—God knows I have a heart deeply touched with the scene, and a broken spirit which seeks for prayer, pure and fervent prayer, even with the *Catholic* in his Cathedral.

11.—RESOURCES OF LOUISIANA.

For the last time we publish in the Review a call we have made upon the people of the state, to aid us in preparing a volume we have in progress, which shall correctly exhibit our position and resources. No pains shall be spared to make it complete, but we must depend very much upon citizens for aid, in collecting information. Will not the editors of Louisiana all copy our call? We hope to make a large and valuable volume, and will, if possible, visit personally the greater portion of the state.

New-Orleans, Jan. 6, 1851.

As I am engaged in collecting information with the view of preparing an elaborate work upon the resources, progress and development of the State of Louisiana, will you aid in making a call upon its citizens for any information, and for a liberal co-operation? Several valuable historical and statistical works have been carried to high perfection in this way. In every neighborhood there are men familiarly acquainted with everything that relates to it. I should be happy to record their notes and suggestions, addressed to me in this city. Every member of the Legislature is in possession of the circular I have sent out. It embraces, in all their minute divisions, the following heads:

1. Settlement and History of Parish, Indian Remains.
2. Biography of Remarkable Men.
3. Topography, Geology and Natural History.
4. Agriculture, Timber, Roads, Navigation, Value of Lands, Levees and Crevasses.
5. Disease and Health, Meteorology.
6. Population—its growth, classes, size of town, labor.
7. Education—schools, proportion educated, expense; Churches, etc.
8. Manufactures and Arts of Parish.
9. Commercial Statistics of Parish.
10. General Statistics—Society, Pauperism, Charities, Crime, Remarkable Physical Events, Climate, etc. etc.

I also desire to obtain knowledge of Old Manuscripts, Public or Private Records, Letters, Journals, Rare Old Books, Files of Newspapers, relating to the State. I will most cordially acknowledge in the work the aid I may obtain. J. D. B. DE BOW.

12.—THE AMERICAN UNION.

THIS is the title of an eloquent sermon delivered a few weeks ago in Philadelphia, by Dr. Henry H. Boardman, and published by request of a number of gentlemen. Among whom, we notice the names of Messrs. Dallas, Meredith, Ingersoll, etc.

The tone and spirit of this sermon are such as we have not often been treated with by the northern pulpit, and the withering rebuke which it administers to the fanatics of the North, should have a wide and deep influence, if anything could affect the minds of men so "hardened in transgression."

The exalted tribute which Dr. Boardman pays to the Union, as it was conceived and elaborated in the wisdom and patriotism of our fathers, and as it has achieved its almost miraculous triumphs in wealth, in power, and in noble deeds, meets with a ready and enthusiastic response from our own heart. We have loved and cherished the Union, and to preserve it in its integrity and its purity, has been the one-wide, deep, universal southern sentiment. Another, and a sentiment equally high and holy, actuates every true southern heart, and that is, to resist any change or encroachment upon such a Union. As high-minded men, we scorn all calculations of consequences. To resist tyranny and oppression is a law of God, higher than that of allegiance to principalities and powers. Like Brutus with his dagger at the breast of the enemy of his country's liberties, we may feel it was not Cæsar that we loved less, but Rome more!

In our love for the Union, we will not consent to relinquish one tittle of our rights as sovereigns, or that high attribute of determining for ourselves, when these are endangered, and the true mode and measure of redress. The sneer which is often vouchsafed at the impotence of a single state, in resisting the mandates of imperial power, like that of the Union, is an argument addressed to fear, and we trust in God it will never be heard among us, while Pym and Hampden, and Harry Vane and Elliott, are

held in consecrated memory. We quote here, as worthy of being graven on every heart, the lines of Sir Wm. Jones, which are seldom met with entire:

WHAT CONSTITUTES A STATE?

"What constitutes a state?
Not high-raised battlements or labored
Thick wall, or moated gate; [mound,
Not cities proud, with spires and turrets
[crowned;
Not bays and broad-armed ports,
Where, laughing at the storm, rich navies
Not starred and spangled courts, [ride;
Where, low-bred baseness wafts perfume to
No: men, high-minded men, [pride;
With powers as far above dull brutes en-
In forest brake or dew, [dued
As beasts excel cold rocks or brambles rude:
Men who their duties know,
But know their rights, and knowing dare
Prevent the long-armed blow. [maintain,
And crush the tyrant while they rend the
These constitute a state. [chain:
And sovereign law, that state's collected
O'er thrones and globes elate, [will
Sits Empress, crowning good, repressing ill;
Smit by her sacred frown,
The fiend Discretion, like a vapor sinks,
And e'en the all-dazzling crown
Hides her faint rays, and at her bidding
[shrinks."

But to return to Dr. Boardman's sermon, from which we shall make a few extracts.

FUGITIVE SLAVE LAW.

That a statute respecting fugitive slaves should form a part of this series of pacificatory measures, was a thing of course. One of the chief compromises of the Constitution itself relates to this very subject. The South would not come into the Union without some guarantee on this point, and the following section (Art. IV. Sect. 2) was adopted by the Convention—I believe unanimously. "No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due." A law was enacted under Washington's administration, and with his approval, to carry this provision of the Constitution into effect. This law had of late years been rendered nugatory in some of the States by local legislation, and it became necessary to replace it with another. This is the statute which is now exciting so much opposition, and the execution of which has been resisted with so much violence. These demonstrations, although professedly directed against some of the details of the act, are to a great extent levelled against its principle. We do the party concerned in them no injustice in supposing that they would be equally hostile to any adequate law designed to effect the same object. In this view, one cannot but be struck with the flexible morality which can declaim fiercely about the inalienable rights of man, while it is trampling under its feet one of the most sacred covenants which ever bound a people together. There is no difference of opinion as to the meaning of the Constitutional provision on this subject. To that provision, in common with the others, our fathers assented, and we have assented. It is one of the terms of a compact into which we have as a people entered with one another; and which is just as binding upon us as any other of its provisions. Our judgment may condemn it. It may be very revolting to our feelings. But this is nothing to the purpose. We are under no obligation to remain in a country which we believe to be governed by oppressive laws; there is nothing to prevent our flying to any land which rejoices in a milder code and a more rational liberty. But as long as we continue citizens of this Union, we must abide by its Constitution, and obey its laws. And we cannot consent to take lessons in ethics from those who deny this proposition. The first requisite we demand in a teacher of morals is, that he be a moral man himself. And when a covenant-breaker comes to expound to us our obligations, we feel disposed to decline his instructions, and to say to him—

"Your nickname, virtue; vice, you should
have spoke;
For virtue's office never breaks men's
troth."

NORTHERN ABOLITIONISTS.

The Northern abolitionists (I use the term in its technical sense), impressed, it would seem, with a conviction that their proper responsibilities, sectional and national, secular and spiritual, are not commensurate with their capacities, have volunteered to shoulder by much the heaviest portion of the obligations resting upon the Southern States. The South declines the proffered civility; but they press their attentions. The South remonstrates, on the ground that the contemplated interference would be highly prejudicial to her tranquillity; but her officious friends insist upon it as their right to help her manage her private affairs. The South at length puts herself in an attitude of resistance, and points to the solemn compact in the Constitution; but they reply, with an air of triumph, that they are governed by a "*higher law*," and that under that law, it is not only their right, but their duty to take charge of her slaves. And what have they accomplished by this Quixotic generosity? They have riveted the fetters of the slave. They have deterred at least three States, Maryland, Virginia, and Kentucky, from carrying out the plans of prospective emanci-

pation they were just entering upon when this outbreak of misguided philanthropy occurred at the North. They have scattered the seeds of discord and alienation broadcast through the Confederacy. In a word, protesting that they were the exclusive friends of the slave, they have taken him to their breasts with a hug which reminds one of the embrace of that terrific automaton of the Virgin found in the dungeons of the "Holy Inquisition," which, clasping the victim in its arms, and pressing him to its bosom, transfixed him with a thousand concealed spikes and knife-blades. And their fitting auxiliaries in all this crusade against the South have been British emissaries; the subjects of that crown which, in the face of the remonstrances of some of the colonies, planted slavery in our soil, and fostered it into manhood, and which at this moment has millions of subjects at home, and in its colonies, who would be the gainers in physical comfort, and even in spiritual privilege, by exchanging places with our Southern slaves.

THE SOUTH'S POWER TO PRESERVE HER SLAVES.

The failure of all past efforts at the North to ameliorate the condition of the slave is not more palpable than is the certainty that the grand expedient now contemplated would prove equally abortive. For, suppose radicalism could achieve its purpose and split the Union to pieces, how would this help the slave? Does any man, not a tenant of a Lunatic Asylum, believe that disunion would mitigate the evils of Southern servitude? Would it bring about a relaxation of the laws which regulate it? Would it incline the planters to put books and pens into the hands of their slaves? Would it facilitate the flight of fugitives? Would it conciliate the various legislatures towards schemes of emancipation? No one is so infatuated as to affirm this. The most frantic abolitionists must be aware that the disruption of the Union would put a cup of gall and wormwood to a lips of every slave; that it would be the signal for the enactment of more stringent laws than have ever appeared upon the Southern Statute-books; and for the institution of a system of surveillance on every plantation and in every household, the rigor of which has no parallel in the records of American bondage. In the name, then, of three millions of slaves, we protest against all schemes for dissolving the Union. We believe that, terrible as such a catastrophe would be to the whites, it would be no less so to the blacks; that it would abridge their privileges, augment their burdens, and postpone by many years the period of their ultimate emancipation. And we should be criminally indifferent to their welfare, as well as treacherous to those sacred bonds which have hitherto united the North and the South in an honorable and affectionate brotherhood, if we could remain silent when sincere, but mistaken religionists, and unprincipled demagogues, have well nigh precipitated the country into this frightful abyss. And we are all the more disposed to break silence, because we believe that, of the two classes of agitators just named, the latter has a great deal more to do with the present excitement than the former. There is, it is true, a settled conviction in the minds of the Northern people that slavery is a great evil, and there is an anxious desire to see the country rid of it. But, left to itself, this feeling is as still as it is strong and deep; and it never could have been lashed into the foaming surges which now break over the land, but through the systematic, crafty, and wicked exertions of political demagogues. There were men in the ancient republics, whose motto was,

"Better to reign in Hell, than serve in Heaven;"

and they cared not what became of their country, so they were promoted.

13.—LEIGH HUNT.

The Autobiography of Leigh Hunt, with Reminiscences of Friends and Contemporaries. In two volumes. New-York: Harper & Brothers; 1850. New-Orleans: J. B. Steel.

We have only had sufficient leisure to read the first, and a portion of the second volume, of this very interesting book. We think we can recommend it as a very readable book, to those who are fond of that species of literature which amuses the mind in moments of relaxation from more severe labor. We may add, that it cannot be duly appreciated until we have doffed our boots, donned our dressing-gown, and fairly lighted our *Habanero*. Had not the author anticipated us, we would have indulged, at some length, in condemning the silliness and puerile vanity, which are usually displayed in works of this description. He entreats, however, that we do not censure him before we have read his *Preface*. As his opinions on the subject coincide with our own had we sufficient space we would give them entire. We can fully comprehend him when he says, that "he has lived long enough to discover that autobiography may not only be a very distressing, but a very puzzling task, and to throw the writer into such doubts as to what he should, or should not say, as totally to confuse him." This is precisely the kind of difficulty that the critic finds in noticing the book before us. The

author shelters himself, however, behind the illustrious example of Alfieri, Goethe, and Chateaubriand—without seeming to remember that their autobiographies were posthumous publications. He might, with more propriety, have cited Rousseau and Lamartine, the former of whom has immortalized himself by his disgustingly-fascinating "Confessions," and the latter, by his "Confidential Disclosures," which are read with such rapture by love-sick ladies. In fact, we think that nothing but *vanity* or *money* (or, perhaps, both) could induce any one to make such an *exposé* of himself until his decease. There would be no danger of his incurring the imputation of cowardice, with which Dr. Johnson charged Bolinbroke, whom he said, "was afraid of the report of his own pop-gun, and hired another to fire it off after he was out of danger."

We do not make these remarks with a view to disparage our author, or his book, for, as we have said, it is really highly entertaining. He was intimate with all the literati of his day, and gives lively sketches of Byron, Shelley, Lamb, Coleridge, and a host of other wits and oddities, with whom he came in contact during a long and varied experience. He was distinguished some forty years ago as the author of several literary works, among which the *Indicator*, a series of essays, the Story of Rimini, founded upon an episode in Dante, and a political paper called the Examiner, are most conspicuous. He was indicted for libelling George IV., then Prince Regent, was convicted, and imprisoned for two years, and fined £1,000. His account of his confinement is one of the most affecting of his sketches. He says: "I enjoyed after all, such happy moments with my friends, even in prison, that in the midst of the beautiful climate which I afterward visited, I was sometimes in doubt whether I would not rather have been in jail than in Italy." He mentions an anecdote about Lord Bacon that we do not remember to have seen before, to wit: That his lordship was in the habit of riding out in his coach, bareheaded, while it was raining, exclaiming, "that he felt the spirit of the universe upon him."

His sketch of Lamb is graphic, and, we believe, a faithful portraiture.

Charles Lamb had a head worthy of Aristotle, with as fine a heart as ever beat in human bosom, and limbs very fragile to sustain it. His features were strongly, yet delicately, cut: he had a fine eye, as well as forehead; and no face carried in it greater marks of thought and feeling. It resembled that of Bacon, with less worldly vigor, and more sensibility. As his frame, so was his genius. It was fit for thought as could be, and equally as unfit for action; and this rendered him melancholy, apprehensive, humorous, and willing to make the best of everything as it was, both from tenderness of heart and abhorrence of alteration. His understanding was too great to admit an absurdity; his frame was not strong enough to deliver it from a fear. His sensibility to strong contrasts was the foundation of his humor, which was that of a wit at once melancholy, and willing to be pleased. He would beard a superstition, and shudder at the old phantasm while he did it. One could have imagined him cracking a jest in the teeth of a ghost, and then melting into thin air himself, out of a sympathy with the awful. His humor and his knowledge both, were those of Hamlet, of Moliere, of Carlin, who shook a city with laughter, and, in order to divert his melancholy, was recommended to go and hear himself. Yet he extracted a real pleasure out of his jokes, because good-heartedness retains that privilege when it fails in everything else. I should say he condescended to be a punster, if condescension had been a word befitting wisdom like his. Being told that somebody had lampooned him, he said, very well, I'll Lamb-pun him.

His puns were admirable, and often contained as deep things as the wisdom of some who have greater names. Such a man, for instance, as Nicole, the Frenchman, who was a baby to him. He would have cracked a score of jokes at him, worth his whole book of sentences; pelted his head with pearls. Nicole would not have understood him, but Rochefoucault would, and Pascal, too; and some of our Englishmen would understood him better," &c.

It is but just, however, to apprise the reader, that our author is a Universalist in religion, and a "good-hater" of everything American.

14.—LATE BOOKS AND PERIODICALS.

Banker's Magazine, Boston.—We have not received our numbers of this work for several months back, and beg to remind Mr. Homans, the Editor, of the fact. It is a monthly of 84 pages, at the rate of $5 per annum. This magazine has been published several years, and is now, or ought to be, in the hands of every banker or banking-house in the Union. Among the articles which

appear in it are most elaborate productions of Humboldt, McCulloch, Marchison, Gilbart, Whipple, etc. Many large foreign works on banking are re-published in this magazine.

Silliman's Journal, New-Haven.—Published every two months, in numbers of 152 pages, each at $5. Contents—January, 1851—American and Foreign Building Stones, by Professor Johnson; The Electric Current, by J. H. Lane; Meteorites, by Professor Shepard; Numertes and Planariae, by Mr. Girard; Emory, by J. Lawrence Smith, M.D., Galvanic Current, by A. B. Gould, Jun.; Miscellaneous Notices, by J. H. Bailey; Time required to raise Galvanic Current, by Professor Page; Phenomena of Polarized Light, by Professor Page; New Species of Fungi, by Rev. S. Berkley and Rev. M. A. Curtis; Carapax of Crabs, by James D. Dana; Phosphate of Iron, Manganese and Lethia, by W. J. Craw; Phosphate of Iron, by J. D. Dana, Editor. The following fifty pages are devoted to new discoveries in chemistry, physics, geology, mineralogy, astronomy, meteorology, practical science and bibliographical notices.

Pictorial Field Book of the Revolution—Nos. 9 and 10—New-York—Harper and Brothers.—We know of no language strong enough to express our admiration of the manner in which this work is executed by the publishers. The paper is of finest quality—print beautiful and large, wood cuts, which are very numerous, superb. The engravings are by B. J. Lossing, Esq., and the whole will be completed in about twenty numbers, of 48 pages each. Price 25 cents a number. New-Orleans: J. B. Steel.

Appleton's Mechanics' Magazine, No. 1.—The Messrs. Appleton, who are the largest publishers or sellers of scientific works in America, have wisely set about this magazine, so valuable to the engineers and practical men of the nation. The illustrations are very fine. Terms $3 per annum; 25 cents each. New-Orleans: J. B. Steel.

History of Pendennis, No. 7—Alfred the Great—Darius the Great.—From the press of Harper & Brothers. Alfred the Great and Darius are parts of a series of neat and handsome volumes, with fine illustrations, by Mr. Abbott. Price 60 cents each. Among the volumes already published, are Elizabeth, Charles I., Hannibal, Alexander, Cæsar, Xerxes, &c.

Report on the Sanatory Commission of Massachusetts.—This is the work of that able, laborious and indefatigable statistician, Lemuel Shattuck, Esq., of Boston, and is a large volume of 500 pages. We shall take occasion, before long, to review it more at length, but meanwhile recommend it to the attention of Boards of Health, and statesmen all over the Union.

Mr. Shattuck is understood to be the author of the plan for taking the present census of the United States. He has made public health and statistics of human life a subject of observation, and of careful scientific study for many years. He has collected very many publications, and written some valuable works and statistical papers connected with the subject. He has been familiar with the laws and regulations for the promotion of public health, their practical operation, and their reported results in Europe, as well as in our own country. Although he is not a practising physician, yet there are few, if any, in the ranks of the medical profession, more familiar with matters of this kind. The sanatory and statistical departments of his library are probably more extensive, and contain more rare and valuable works than any other private library in the United States, especially in regard to the literature elicited in the agitation of the great questions of Sanatory Reform, which have recently engaged so much public attention in Europe.

Affleck's Southern Rural Almanac and Plantation Garden Calendar. Wishing, as we do, well to every enterprise tending to the literary independence of the South, we give a warm welcome to Affleck's Almanac. Though of moderate pretensions and at a very cheap rate, it contains an immense number of facts valuable to the planting community.

The Gallery of Illustrious Americans, contains the portrait and biographical sketches of twenty-four of the most eminent citizens in the Republic since the death of Washington. Published from Brady's Gallery, 205 Broadway, New-York. By John Wiley, G. P. Putnam, D. Appleton & Co., C. S. Francis & Co. New York, 1850.

We have received the sketches of Clay, Webster, Wright, Taylor, Fillmore, Fremont, Prescott and Scott, and would thank the publishers to send us Calhoun and the others as they are published, so that we can have the work complete. The work is edited by C. Edwards Lester, our late consul at Genoa, who is assisted by other literary gentlemen. The portraits are generally faithful—that of Calhoun is the best we have ever seen of him. The work is printed on large and distinct type, on stout fine paper, and does great credit to all who are engaged. We recommend it to the public patronage, and trust it may receive all the encouragement it so richly deserves. We shall continue to notice the numbers as they appear, and recommend them to our friends.

The American Union and Republican Review, edited by I. & R. Austin, Jackson, Miss. This is a periodical of limited size, intended monthly, as the organ of the party opposed to action on the part of the South. When we have examined it thoroughly we shall be prepared to speak of the merits of the papers included.

Dr. Jarvis on the Insanity of the Sexes, Boston. The Doctor has presented an immense array of facts upon the interesting question of insanity as it affects the different sexes. Having found that no general rule could be adduced applicable to all countries and times, showing that one sex was more susceptible than the other, he makes some remarks, which we extract:

"The temperament of females is more ardent, and more frequently nervous than that of the males. Women are more under the influence of the feelings and emotions, while men are more under the government of the intellect. Men have stronger passions and more powerful appetites and propensities. Women are more hopeful and confiding, especially in what regards the affections, but they are less given to sensual indulgence. Men are more cautions in regard to matters of a social nature. But in regard to the affairs that affect the intellect, they are more bold and less cautious. Their intellectual functions are often exercised without reference to the power of the physical organ. Their inclinations and propensities, of whatever nature, intellectual, moral, or physical, are more powerful and uncontrollable, and they are more likely to overwork and disturb the brain than women.

Women are more calm and patient, they endure difficulties and afflictions better than men, who are more impatient and uneasy under trial. It is said, and with truth, that women sooner yield, but being elastic, recover again; while men, being more firm, resist longer, and then break without power to rise again as readily as females do when they are cast down."

We acknowledge our thanks to Dr. Jarvis, for his nomination of us as an honorary member of the Massachusetts Statistical Society, and for our election to that honorable post.

Memorial to the Congress of the United States, announcing a new method of refining gold. A brief account of the invention and importance of a new method of refining gold.

We are indebted to the author, Professor McCulloh, late of the U. S. mint, and now of Princeton College, for the above pamphlets. Speaking on the improved method, he says:

"If used in the mint, my new method would refine in a week the quantity now refined in a month: and it would, therefore, save to the United States three-fourths of six per cent. interest, or four and a half per cent. on the amount of money now kept in the mint for the accommodation of depositors, by advances upon their bullion, before the same can be refined; which amounts to $2,500,000, upon which, the saving of four and a half per cent. interest, would be $112,500. But even this fund is found to be insufficient to meet the demands of the dealers in bullion, constantly coming in in increasing quantities from California, and it will probably become necessary for the president to increase it to the extent of one or more millions of dollars, under the provisions of the act, approved May 23d, 1850, authorizing him to make such advances to an indefinite extent."

NEW SUBSCRIBERS AND DEBTORS.

The gentle hint we gave in our last, that our friends, "dyed in the same wool" with ourselves, have not been sufficiently active in setting our work agoing in their neighbor-

hood, has been met by a prompt response from many, who have sent into us liberal lists of new subscribers, and the remittances. This is comfortable, and almost makes us feel disposed to "complain no more forever." Many more friends shall stand by us in the hour of need. It is our faith.

We are not an incorrigible dun—but then,—very large amounts are still due to the Review, sometimes for several years. Come, gentlemen, don't wait for agents who tax us sorely, and trouble you much —adopt the mail, and we will acknowledge receipts upon the cover! Never man more grateful for promptness than we are. To you this is "something, *nothing*," but its absence makes us "poor indeed."

LIBRARY EDITION OF THE REVIEW.

Our work is intended for libraries, private and public, and is therefore laboriously prepared, and will be even more valuable in the future than now. Therefore, we wish every subscriber to preserve his numbers. If returned to us, we will give in exchange bound sets, with a moderate charge for binding. By the new postal arrangement, bound volumes can go by mail at small expense. We can generally supply deficient numbers.

We again solicit orders for our sets, and have some on hand handsomely bound. There are three series.

1st series, beginning Jan., 1846, 10 vols., $35.
2d series, " July, 1849, 4 vols., 12.
3d series, " July, 1850, 2 vols., 6.

We will give any other number of the Review, or the value, or any other book ordered of the same value, for copies of the February Number, 1848, and August Number, 1849, both of which are nearly exhausted in our office. Those who have only broken sets, will, in addition, confer an obligation by sending these numbers. We will give volumes X. and XI. for volumes I. and II.

☞ Orders on factors, payable now, or in the fall, at any Southern city, received.

"*" The first series is splendidly bound—2 volumes to the year—10 volumes in all, of 500 to 700 pages each. We have scarcely more than a dozen sets of this series remaining, complete, which cannot be had after a few weeks, and which are becoming every day more valuable. They will, probably, be taken by public libraries. We will deliver them free of expense in any southern city. A minute Index of the whole ten volumes, neatly printed, will be furnished to purchasers—free of expense. The volumes are illustrated with Maps and Engravings, and are complete upon all subjects relating to the resources and progress of the South in every department of industry.

TO PLANTERS, MERCHANTS, CITIZENS, ETC.

SUGAR ESTATES FOR SALE, &C.

The attention of planters is called to the notice at the head of our advertising columns, of two valuable *Sugar Estates*, for sale in Louisiana, upon accommodating terms. Persons desirous of further information in regard to them, will please address the Editor of the Review, *post-paid*.

☞ We also recommend the advertising department of Estates to the attention of the *Planting Community*, as the Review, circulating now extensively throughout all the Middle, Southern, and South-Western States, reaches a larger number of Planters than can be effected in any other mode. Our terms are reasonable, and where we act as agents in effecting sales, the remuneration exacted will be very moderate. It is our intention to call *editorial* attention to the advertisements, and to make the Review an *index of all Estates in the market*.

☞ *To Merchants*, we recommend the *Advertiser*, as a mode of reaching their country customers. We intend to admit only the cards of a few of the best houses in each branch of business, as we have done in the present number. It will be an interesting directory to our friends, and of much value. The plan contemplates names in all of the other Southern cities, and it is in charge of Mr. Pratt, who has published several important business directories at the North.

☞ The Advertiser will, also, be invaluable to *Southern Schools and Colleges, and Teachers, Southern Watering-Places and Hotels, Southern Manufacturers and Agricultural Machinists, Country Lawyers, &c.*

Terms, $5 to $100, according to *space* occupied, and *time*. As moderate as the local papers. Our circulation extends throughout all the Southern and Western States and Cities. Address, *post-paid*.

SOUTHERN PLANTATION ADVERTISER.

1—Sugar Estate for Sale.—Louisiana.

Situated on Bayou Block, (Parish Terrebonne,) 6 miles down the mouth. It contains about 3,600 acres, of which more than one-third is arable, and the rest abounding in accessible timber.

*It is complete in all respects for the residence and business of a planter. It lies on both sides of the Bayou, (which are connected by a valuable toll-bridge,) having a dwelling house on either side—24 double cabins, besides shops, &c., and one of the best sugar mills and sugar houses (of brick) in the state. In point of climate and soil, it is second to none, and vessels drawing 9 feet come to the sugar house.

There are about 600 acres cleared, of which not less than 300 are now, or will be during the winter, planted in cane.

Under good management, it ought to give an average yield of 500 hhds, to 50 hands. Between 80 and 100 negroes might be had with the place, amongst them some most valuable mechanics.

TERMS.—For the plantation *only*, $75,000—one-fourth down, the balance bearing interest, in four annual payments.

* On the part not suited for sugar, was thought, by Col Williams,† (late Chief Engineer of the state,) peculiarly adapted to rice.

Address, J. D. B. DE BOW, New-Orleans.

2.—Plantations in Mississippi.

493 acres, 370 being in cultivation, creek bottom, little worn, good residence and out houses, eight miles from Jackson. A woodland tract adjoining is also for sale. Terms cash, or 2-3 in one and two years, with interest. Address

JOHN T. SORSBY.

1,200 acres, 500 in cultivation, near Pontotoc, Miss.—good dwelling and plantation houses, orchard and gardens, and stock range. Terms easy. Samuel I. Watt, Pontotoc.

3.—Cotton Plantation,

Situated on Red River, about five miles below Natchitoches, containing 2690 arpents of land, of which some 800 acres are cleared and in cultivation; having a good Ginhouse, Stables and Negro Cabins, nearly new, with an indifferent dwelling house. Together with about 100 NEGROES, old and young, the most of them very likely, of which about 60 or 65 are working hands; stock of Mules, Horses, Cattle and Hogs, and also implements of husbandry, as they stand—the whole being very ample and sufficient for the proper cultivation of the place. About one-half of the tract consists of bottom land, and very productive; the balance of high and dry piney woods, interspersed with oak, hickory, etc. The crop of this year is estimated at or near 450 bales of cotton, and corn enough for the supply of the plantation, and about 1000 bbls. to spare.

This property is offered for sale in order to close a joint concern, one of the owners being dead, and will be sold in block, as it now stands. Inquire of CHAS. A. JACOBS,

30 Bank Place, New-Orleans.

4.—Plantation near Trinity, La.,

Lying half a mile from the banks of Black River. Said place contains 320 acres, 200 of which are above the high water of 1844, and are in a high state of cultivation.

The improvements embrace a large dwelling house, large brick cistern, cabins, and other necessary out houses, all in good repair. A liberal credit will be given to a purchaser. For particulars apply to Dr. A. R. Kilpatrick, near the premises. BULKLEY & HOLT.

New-Orleans, Nov. 28, 1850.

5—Orange Island Plantation, La.

This large and superb Plantation is situated nine miles west of New Iberia, fronting fifty acres on Lake Peignuer, and is in the parish of St. Martin's, Attakapas, La. It contains upwards of four thousand acres of land, including seven hundred acres of wood land, and is all arable, and well fenced and ditched. The field in actual cultivation for cane, corn, &c. &c., is six hundred acres, and there will be seed cane sufficient to plant five hundred acres.

The pastures are fine, and capable of supporting four thousand head of cattle, winter and summer; being contiguous to a luxuriant range of salt water marsh, which supplies grass in abundance during winter.

It is one of the best stock farms in the State, and as a sugar plantation, cannot be surpassed, and with a trifling expense, eight hundred acres can be irrigated from the lake, so as to make it well adapted for the rice culture.

The brick dwelling-house is delightfully situated on the brow of the hill, eighty feet above the level of the prairie—has a beautiful sloping lawn in front, with an orchard of sweet oranges, figs, peach and plumb trees, and from the rear, down to the lake, a splendid grove of live oak and magnolia.

Also a vegetable garden, brick kitchen, two frame buildings for servants' rooms, pigeon house, poultry houses, and dairy; two large corn cribs, stable for eighty horses, with the necessary appurtenances; there is also a good sugar house, with horse mill, boiling room, cisterns, purgery, coolers, juice vats, sufficient to make four hundred hogsheads sugar, overseer's house, seven double cabins, black-smith's shop, &c., all well arranged and in good condition.

The water of the lake is clear as crystal, and rests on a white sandy bottom—it is excellent for drinking, and is supplied by thousands of little fountains, springing up continually.

It forms a crescent, three miles long, and one and a half miles across—it abounds with delicious trout, and with almost every variety of fine fish; and on the plantation is found in abundance all kinds of game. The situation is exceedingly beautiful, and as salubrious as it is beautiful.

In short, for the combined advantages of rich soil, inexhaustible pastures, picturesque and lovely scenery, delicious fish, and fine game, and refreshing sea breezes, this plantation is unparalleled.

The plantation, with the improvements, will be sold with or without the following articles, viz.: thirty slaves, of different ages and sexes; two thousand head of horned cattle, principally females: twenty yoke of oxen; forty gentle mules, broke to the plough; thirty young mules; seventy creole mares, cane carts, ploughs, harness, hoes, spades, axes, skiffs, sail boats, &c. &c.

Also a large number of BLOODED stock, of distinguished pedigree.

If the purchaser declines any of the above articles or slaves, the proprietor will retain them, and deduct the price.

Terms—cash	$15,000
Assume Citizen's Bank debt, payable in instalments in 30 years.	$16,625

Balance in one, two, and three years, without interest. For entire cash, a liberal discount will be made. For full particulars and prices, address, *post paid*, J. D. B. DE BOW,

22 Exchange Place, New-Orleans.

DE BOW'S

SOUTHERN AND WESTERN REVIEW.

ESTABLISHED JANUARY 1, 1846.

APRIL, 1851.

VOL. X., O. S.....2d SERIES, VOL. IV., No. 4.—3d SERIES, VOL. II., No. 4.

ART. I.—THE STATE OF GEORGIA.*

SCHOOLS, COLLEGES, INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS, FINANCES, RELIGION, ETC.

(*Concluded.*)

THE Georgia Female College is another sectarian institution, under the charge of the Georgia Methodist Conference. Degrees are conferred upon the graduates of this college, just as they are upon the graduates in the male colleges. The exercises were commenced on the 7th January, 1839. There are a president, and three professors, and a proper number of assistants. There are also a matron, and a superintendent of the department of domestic economy. There are generally 140 students in attendance. We do not believe in female colleges under any circumstances. We believe the fireside to be the best college for young ladies, their father the best president, and their mother the best matron and teacher of domestic economy. It is all nonsense in the extreme to talk of "departments of domestic economy" in the Georgia Female College, or in any female or male college whatever. It is like the absurdity of the "Manual Labor Department," once attached to Emory College and the Mercer University. But we have no time to launch out here in a tirade against such follies and foibles; so we will pass on.

Mr. White says, that of the Georgia Episcopal Institute, "the Episcopal Church is chiefly indebted to the liberality of G. B. Lamar, Esq., formerly of the city of Savannah, for this invaluable seminary. It is situated near the Montpelier Springs, in Monroe County. Before the place was purchased for the institute, it was a favorite place of resort for invalids, on account of the valuable medicinal qual-

* White's Statistics of Georgia.

ities of its mineral waters. The Rev. Richard Johnson prepared a notice of this institution for our author, in which he says:

"The visitor needs only to see its extensive lawn, majestic groves, shady walks, beautiful gardens, and spacious buildings, to be in love with the spot. In addition to this, it is the permanent residence of the bishop of the diocese, a gentleman long distinguished for devoted piety and extensive literary attainments. His large and well selected library affords an inexhaustible source of entertainment and knowlege to the pupils. The course of instruction is thorough and complete; embracing every item that can contribute to fit a lady for the first stations in society. Its teachers are persons of high character and first-rate abilities. They have been procured at great expense in Europe and America. It may be truly said, that in this school, true religion, useful learning, and polished refinement, are inseparably united. The number of pupils varies from sixty to ninety. The applicants have generally been more than could be accommodated."—*P.* 81.

Georgia has also her Medical College, situated in Augusta. It was incorporated in 1830. The annual course of lectures in this institution commences on the second Monday in November, and continues four months. There are usually in attendance upon this course 200 or 250 students. The Legislature of the state has given this college good pecuniary aid, amounting probably to $35,000. The city council of Augusta did a noble deed in giving the college $5,000. In addition to these sums, more that $10,000 have been raised by other means, and the institution is furnished with a splendid Doric building, in a beautiful situation, and provided with an anatomical museum, chemical apparatus, surgical cabinet, &c.

In addition to the institutions already mentioned, there have recently sprung up in Madison, Morgan County, two female colleges—a Methodist and a Baptist. If we mistake not, the latter has assumed to itself the name of the female college in Macon, to wit: the Georgia Female College. It should certainly never have done this, and the sooner it doffs the appropriated name, and gets one of its own—making the *amende honorable*—the better. *Mem.*—We do not see why every little school that springs up in the land should be assuming to itself the name of "college," "seminary," "institute," "university," &c. Better call things by their proper names—even if you have to call a *rake* a *rake*, as John of Roanoke said.

There are many other institutions of learning in the state, many of them as important as some we have noticed. Circumstances suggested some of those we have mentioned in preference to others. Our limits do not allow us to notice all. Common schools abound throughout the state. We should have a system of common schools under the patronage and control of the state. Then, not a Yankee teacher nor a Yankee book ought to be allowed to cross the threshold of a school-room. When we say "Yankee," we mean to express by it the class of pert and upstart Northern books and pedagogues who flood the land, filled with abolitionism. Let it be understood, we do not mean to include all Northern men.* There are among us num-

* The liberal review the author took of Bryant's Poems excludes the idea.—[Ed.]

bers of citizens who came originally from the North, and who are, to all intents and purposes, of us and among us. Against these we have nothing to say. But the flood-gates should now be let down, and the stream of immigration from Free Soil be turned in another direction. We should shut out the tide that brings upon its surface the advocates of "higher law," and those striplings in letters but giants in political corruption and putrefaction, who come among us as teachers, merchants, and mechanics, deeply imbued in the spirit of fanaticism and abolitionism.

Georgia has a State Lunatic Asylum. The act establishing this institution was passed in December, 1837. For ten years it labored under many disadvantages, and the hopes of those who were its founders seemed in a fair way to be blighted. But there has been a change, and our author says:

"Since November, 1847, the whole aspect of things has been materially changed for the better. An entirely separate department has been provided for the females, more extensive means of classification secured, more liberal provision made for the support of the institution, while attendants have been employed in every department, and many very valuable improvements effected. And notwithstanding there still exists great necessity for additional means, and facilities for promoting the care, comfort, and cure of the inmates, (all which, it is hoped, will be provided for by the next legislature,) yet the present condition of the institution is such as to reflect much credit upon the humane efforts of the state in behalf of that, of all others, most helpless class of human sufferers, and to afford the means of providing for their safety, comfort, and cure, in a much higher degree, and more satisfactory manner, than can possibly exist under the most favorable circumstances at their homes. The proportion of cures effected has been, under all the difficulties, fully equal to any just expectations; indeed, the proportion of cures, in *recent cases of insanity*, have equaled such results any where. The whole amount expended by the state upon this object, for all purposes, (including cost of land and buildings,) has been, or will have been, at the end of the present year, 1849, $94,201.

Whole number of patients received since 15th December, 1842, to January, 1849	204
Number who have been discharged	56
" " " " died	53
Number remaining, January, 1849	95

Number of buildings for patients, 2; size of buildings—height, 4 stories; length, 129 feet; width, 39 feet; number of rooms for patients in each of the two buildings, exclusive of those used for bathing purposes, &c., 63; size of those rooms, 10 feet by 9; height of ceiling, 10 feet; extent of ground at present belonging to the Asylum, 40 acres."—*P.* 84.

The state has never been negligent of the interests of her deaf and dumb. Previous to the year 1847, there was a commissioner appointed to receive applications in favor of indigent deaf and dumb, and to make arrangements for carrying them to the American Asylum at Hartford. In that year, (1847,) however, this office was abolished, and an act passed authorizing the governor to appoint five commissioners, whose business it would be to make arrangements for the

erection of an Asylum for the deaf and dumb of the state. An institution of this kind has been provided, and is now in successful operation at Cave Springs, in Floyd County. Being still in its infancy, of course there is much room for improvement in this Infirmary. Still much may be hoped from the continued prosperity and future improvement of this Asylum for the deaf and dumb.

Milledgeville is the capital of the state, and is a tolerably prosperous town, containing some two or three thousand inhabitants. The subject of removing the public buildings from this city has been much agitated for the last several years. This question, we suppose, has been put at rest by the building of the Gordon and Milledgeville Rail-road, which connects the capital with the great central road terminating in Savannah. Milledgeville, whose drooping head has, for years past, been bowed down by the weight of dilapidation, is now looking up, and, for the future, may be noted for other things than being the capital of the state.

We may venture to suggest, that if ever the State House is removed —and we think there is now no probability of it—it should be to Savannah. The fact that this city is not near the centre of the state, argues nothing against its being the seat of government. The country is now so intersected with rail-roads as to render access to our largest seaport very easy and convenient. Savannah has never been spoken of as the place to which the seat of government would be removed, if removed at all. On the contrary, it is pretty generally conceded that, in the event of removal, it would go to Atlanta, or Macon. But we think a greater number of good reasons could be given why Savannah should be the capital than could be given in favor of any other town. We believe that every state should have a metropolis—using the word to mean the town containing the greatest number of inhabitants, the most wealth, the most commerce, the most intelligence and refinement. We think that it is incumbent upon every Southern State to act in such a way as to provide for the emergency of becoming a separate and distinct government, independent of, and disconnected from, every other government. There is no knowing how soon Georgia, for instance, in this day of the reign of "higher law," may be called upon to set up for herself. To this end, she should have concentrated in her largest town and best seaport, all the elements required to be concentrated in a city which go to make up a powerful state, providing for defence in case of invasion, or for efficient sallies and naval expeditions, in case it should ever be necessary to "push the war into Africa." To this end there should be concentrated in Savannah the public buildings, and here should live the Governor, and here the Legislature should hold its sessions. Here should be the State College, and here the State of Georgia should have her military school, her magazine, her arsenal, her cannon foundry, and her musket manufactory. Here should be her dock and navy yard, and here her canvass should flutter to the breeze, kissing the mast which would stand ready to salute her flag as soon as it became necessary to run up the banner of resumed sovereignty. Here her Supreme Court should hold its sessions, and

here should be collected the legal lore of the reported cases for the benefit of those clad in the supreme ermine. Georgia needs a metropolis, and Savannah must, and will be, that metropolis. Here, too, such encouragement should be given to men of letters as would induce them to write, print and publish books, papers and journals, free from the moral taint of Abolitionism, Fourierism, etc.—such books and papers as could be placed in the hands of our youth, without endangering their mental and moral health and happiness.

But we have digressed. We return to Milledgeville. In this town are situated the most of the public buildings of the state, consisting of the Governor's House, State House, Arsenal and Penitentiary.

"The State House stands upon an eminence about three-fourths of a mile from the river. In it are rooms for the Legislature, offices for the Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, Comptroller, and Surveyor-General; and rooms for clerks, committees, &c. This building cost $115,000, and was erected under the direction of General Thomas.

PENITENTIARY.

"The outer walls are made of brick, averaging twenty feet in height, by two and a half feet thick, containing within the walls two and a half acres. The cells, or prison proper, are contained in a three story granite building, two hundred feet long by thirty feet broad, each story constructed with a passage eight feet wide, running the whole length. On each side are the cells facing each other, and doors opening into these passages, with one grated window. The rooms are eight feet high, eight feet long, and six and a half feet wide, intended for one inmate only, the whole building containing 150 cells. These are divided into four wards, designated by the letters A., B., C. and D. These cells are numbered on the doors, beginning in each ward at No. 1, and rising until all are numbered in each respective ward. The occupants are also numbered, corresponding with the letter of the ward to which they belong. The present work-shops were constructed in 1844. They are built of brick, one story high, of nine feet pitch, with jointed sheathing, and covered with shingles. The form, at its common centre, is that of an octagon, with three of its angles cut to a straight line, leaving five angles of thirty feet each, which angles being all open, they present so many openings into as many shops, one hundred and fifty feet long by thirty feet broad, each. These are lighted by windows, every seven feet. There is also in the enclosure a two story building, of brick, forty feet square, in which are apartments for the sick, female convicts, &c. Leather, wagons, shoes, pails, and indeed almost every thing is made in the establishment; and we understand that at this time it brings a small income to the state."—*P.* 85, 86.

Our author next simply gives a list of the banks, without giving the capital invested, or saying anything about whether their notes are at par or not. From the Carolina and Georgia Almanac for 1851, we get a list of the banks in Georgia, with the amount of capital of most of them; and from a late number of the Constitutionalist, recognized as the best commercial paper in the state, we learn the financial standing of each of these institutions:

	Capital.	Presidents.	Cashiers.	
Bank of Augusta	$600,000	R. F. Poe.	J. W. Davies.	Par.
Mechanics' Bank	500,000	A. Sibley.	Milo Hatch.	"
Augusta Ins. & Banking Co.	500,000	Wm. M. D'Antignan.	R. Walton.	"
Georgia R. R. & Bank'g Co*	375,000	J. P. King.	J. W. Wilde.	"
Bank of Brunswick	200,000	Edward Thomas.	John Craig.	"
Georgia Insurance & Trust Co		Edward Thomas.	Joseph Milligan.	"
Bank of the State of Georgia	1,500,000	G. B. Cumming.	A. Porter.	"
Branches, do.	—	—	—	"
Marine & Fire Insurance Bank	400,000	E. Padelford.	J. Olmstead.	"
Planters' Bank (paid in)	535,400	G. W. Anderson.	H. W. Mercer.	"
Central R. R. & Banking Co.*	205,000	R. R. Cuyler.	G. J. Bullock.	"
Bank of Milledgeville	500,000	S. Grantland.	J. H. Hall.	"
Bank of St. Mary's	250,000	J. G. Winter.	G. W. Winter.	"
Central Bank of Georgia	—	—	—	"

We will here extract from the *Constitutionalist* one or two other items of commercial importance:

Banks of South Carolina	Par.
Alabama Notes	2 a 3 dis.
Tennessee Notes	2 a 5 "

NOT BANKABLE.

Merchants' Bank of Macon.

"Not taken by our (Augusta) Banks, but redeemable at the Planters' Bank, Savannah, at par."—*Note in the Constitutionalist.*

EXCHANGE.

On New-York	Par.
Philadelphia	"
Boston	"
Charleston and Savannah	"
Lexington, Kentucky	"
Nashville, Tennessee	"

STOCKS.

Georgia 6 per cents	Par.

SAVANNAH CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

Robert Habersham, *President.*
C. Green, 1*st Vice-President.*
Edward Padelford, 2*d Vice-President.*
Octavius Cohen, *Secretary and Treasurer.*

[*Weekly Constitutionalist, Jan. 29th,* 1851.

Our author next takes up the subject of rail-roads. The Central Rail-road is the longest in Georgia. It connects Savannah with Macon, being 190 miles and 3,900 feet in length. The experimental survey of this route was first made in 1834, under the direction of Col. Cruger, at the cost of the city of Savannah. In 1836, the company was formed, and preparations made for commencing the work without delay. The road was completed to Macon on the 15th of October, 1843.

"The work on this road is done in a superior manner. The arrangements for the comfort of passengers are surpassed by few roads in the United States.

* These sums refer only to the capital set apart for banking purposes. The Central R. R. & Banking Company have in all about two-and-a-half millions of capital. The Geo. R. R. & Banking Co. probably about the same amount.

"The conductors, some of whom have been in the service of the company from its commencement, have acquired an enviable reputation for their courtesy and attention to passengers. R. R. Cuyler is President of the road, and L. O. Reynolds, Chief Engineer."

The Milledgeville and Gordon Rail-road was chartered in 1847, and organized the same year. It is now in progress of completion, and will probably be finished during the present year. The work has not progressed with that rapidity which has characterized similar works in other parts of the state. The road is only 17¼ miles long, and should have been finished long ago. To the discredit, however, of some of the wealthy capitalists of Baldwin County, who could have sped the work on with the assistance of a little finger only, it has been suffered to labor on under great disadvantages and many doubts as to its final completion. No doubt now remains that it will be finished this year, however.

The Georgia Rail-road is 171 miles long, connecting Augusta with Atlanta. The charter was granted in 1833, and amended in 1835. A portion of the road was put in operation on the 1st of November, 1837, and was finished to Atlanta on the 15th of September, 1845. The whole cost of the road, and its equipments up to April 1st, 1849, has been $3,551,975. John P. King, Esq., is the President.

The Macon and Western Rail-road was chartered in 1833, under the name of the Monroe Rail-road and Banking Company. In 1835 the company was organized, and the work commenced. The road was first chartered from Macon to Forsyth, in Monroe County. In 1836, by an amendment of the charter, the company was authorized to extend the road in a westerly direction, to some point on the Chattahoochee river, between Alabama and Georgia. The company went forward with the work and with banking, too fast for their means, so that by the time the road reached Griffin, in Pike County, there was a grand blow up, and the road was finally sold, in 1845, under a decree of court, for $155,000. At the session of the Legislature for this year, the purchase was confirmed, and a change to its present name granted to the road. The work was pressed forward with vigor and energy, and the total cost of the road to its present owners has been about $628,091. Daniel Tyler, Esq., is the President. In 1847 the Legislature conferred upon the present company all the privileges of the old one, except banking privileges. The right to construct a road from Griffin to West Point, a village built on both sides of the Chattahoochee river, was also given.

"The public are aware that the trains of this road have been run with a regularity unsurpassed by any rail-road in the United States; and the President of the Company in his report for the last year, says: 'The entire credit of which is due to the superior skill and management of Mr. Emerson Foote, the general superintendent.'"

The South-Western Rail-road is to connect the city of Macon with some point on the Chattahoochee, to the south-west. It is also to connect with a contemplated rail-road from Pensacola,—meeting the South-Western at its terminus on the above river. The charter was

granted in 1845, and the company organized in 1847. The road has been nearly completed to Oglethorpe,—a new town which has sprung up at the present terminus of the road, so far as constructed; distant fifty-one miles from Macon. It is to be hoped that the work will be speedily prosecuted to its termination on the banks of the Chattahoochee.

The Western and Atlantic Rail-road, otherwise called the State Road, from its belonging to the state, commences in Atlanta, at the terminus of the Georgia Rail-road, before mentioned, and terminates in Chattanooga, in Tennessee. The most remarkable feature of this road is its tunnel through an arm of the Blue Ridge Mountains, running through the upper part of Georgia. This tunnel is 1,477 feet long, 18 feet in height, and 12 feet in width. It is one of the grandest achievements that grace the annals of the human family. "It is cut in a great measure through solid rock. The lateral walls are of rock, six feet thick at the base, and five feet at the top. The approaches to the tunnel are protected on both sides by massive masonry." This road passes through a portion of the most interesting country in the world. The chief engineer, in his report of 1848, says:

"The watering-places along our line of road, and convenient to the same, are becoming very popular, and they may be expected to attract large crowds every summer, and thus contribute to swell the income of the road. Indeed not only these mineral and medicinal waters, but also the Saltpetre Cave near Kingston, the Tunnel beyond Dalton, the rich and varied scenery along our whole line, the mountainous ridges, the long fertile valleys and beautiful streams, together with the bold features around Chattanooga, are all objects to interest and attract summer visitants."—*P.* 93.

Since the above was written, we find in the Macon Journal and Messenger, a table of the rail-roads in the state:

	MILES.
"1. Central Road, from Savannah to Macon, completed	191
2. Georgia Road, from Augusta to Atlanta, completed	171
3. Macon and Western Road, from Macon to Atlanta	101
4. Western and Atlantic Road, from Atlanta to Chattanooga	140
5. South-Western Road, from Macon to Oglethorpe, nearly completed	51
6. Muscogee Road, from Columbus to Fort-Valley, on South-Western, in progress	71
7. Atlanta and West Point Road, from Atlanta to West Point, in progress	85
8. Milledgeville Road, from Gordon to Milledgeville, in progress	18
9. Eatonton Road, from Milledgeville to Eatonton, in progress	22
10. Wilkes Road, from Double Wells to Washington, in progress	18
11. Athens Branch, from Union Point to Athens, completed	39
12. Burke Road, from 80-mile Station on Central Road to Augusta, in progress	56
13. Rome Branch Road, completed	17
Total completed and in progress	980"

The Journal has not taken into consideration the road in progress leading from Dalton to the Huvassee river, in East Tennessee, sometimes called the Hiwassee Branch Road, and sometimes the East Tennessee and Georgia Road. We do not know the exact length of

this road, but believe it is over twenty miles within the limits of this state. So that in Georgia there are now completed, and in progress together, one thousand miles of rail-road! an amount of internal improvement of this kind unsurpassed, if we are correctly informed, by that of any other state in the Union, save New-York. An article devoted exclusively to internal improvements in Georgia, would be as interesting a chapter of exploits for the public good as could be anywhere found. Our citizens are making some experiments in plank roads; and others are only waiting the result of these experiments, if favorable, to go ahead in this department of internal improvements.

Mr. White says, speaking of canals: "The only works of this description in Georgia, are the Savannah, Ogeechee, and Altamaha canals, and the Augusta Canal, an account of which is given in this work." Turning to pp. 503–5, an interesting description is found of this canal, whose object is commerce, the affording of water to turn factories, mills, &c., &c. We would like to give a farther account of this canal, but our limits forbid us.

The next subject to be taken up in the order in which our author proceeds, is that of religion. Mr. White gives a short history, in the first place, of the Episcopal Church in Georgia. It seems that the Church of England was established in the province, and it was divided off into parishes, commissioners appointed, &c., &c. But all this proved of no avail, however, and, in 1769, there were in Georgia only two Episcopal Churches, 150 miles apart. For many years there were not more than three clergymen in the state. Within a few years past, however, the denomination has greatly increased, and there are now connected with the Diocese of the state twenty-six clergymen, sixteen parishes, and over 800 communicants.

The Lutherans are increasing in Georgia. The nucleus of their Church was formed by the settlement of ninety-one laymen and two ministers of the Lutheran faith at Ebenezer, in 1773. There are now in the state nine Lutheran ministers, ten churches, and six hundred communicants, while the Lutheran population is set down at two thousand.

Our author says: "It is believed that the Baptists now embrace a greater number of members than any other Church" in Georgia. We give the following table, taken by our author from the minutes of the Baptist State Convention, held in 1849:

"Associations	56
Churches	1,105
Church members	67,068
Baptized last year	5,732
Gain of Convention Associations	3,187
Gain to Convention	5,239
Loss of Anti-Mission Associations	322
Gain of Neutral Associations	1,183
Gain of United Baptist Associations	111
Total gain in the State	4,159
Number of Ordained Ministers	583
Number of Licentiates	292"

Next to the Baptists, the Methodists are the most numerous denomination in Georgia. According to the minutes of the last annual conference, there were in the state 43,736 white members, 16,635 colored, 139 traveling preachers, and fourteen superannuated, besides a large number of local preachers.

The ministers of the Presbyterian Church are highly educated men, and have done much to promote the interests of religion and learning in Georgia. According to the report of the General Assembly for 1849, there were in Georgia five Presbyteries—Hopewell, Georgia, Flint River, Cherokee and Florida; 68 ministers, 107 churches, and 5,059 communicants.

In 1733, a respectable number of persons of the Hebrew faith settled in Savannah. The descendants of some of them have taken leading and influential positions in public affairs in Georgia. We have had legislators, jurists, and judges of the Jewish persuasion from Savannah. The Israelites have a synagogue in that city, and though no service was performed there when our author wrote—it was expected that they would soon have a gentleman of ability to perform the duties of minister. The number of this sect is not given. In addition to the respectable Jews about Savannah, there are various sons of Israel scattered about throughout the state wherever a penny is to be made—lineal descendants of that branch of the Jewish family, whose paternal head was Ishmael, against whom was every man's hand, and whose hand was against every man.

There are scattered throughout the state a few "Disciples of Christ, or Christians"—we use the words in a denominational sense, but their numbers are not given.

During the year 1770, under the auspices of Geo. III., a colony of Irish emigrants embarked for America. They sustained a connection with the Associate Reformed Presbyterian Church. They have increased, to some extent, down to the present day. The Presbytery of Georgia embraces ten congregations, most of them small, and a majority without settled pastors.

The number of Roman Catholics is not given. There are churches in Savannah, Augusta, Macon, Columbus, Locust Grove in Taliaferro County, Atlanta and Washington. There are Catholics scattered throughout the state.

The Protestant Methodists have probably about 25 ministers and 30 congregations.

Mr. White says, a church of Mormons has recently been organized in Fayette County. Whether some one has imposed on his credulity, or not, we cannot say. Certain we are, his credulity is very large, and certain we are we never heard of these Joe Smithites save through his book.

Our author winds up what he has to say under the head of religion, with the following paragraph:

"In addition to the above, there are, in different sections of the state, Universalists, Cumberland Presbyterians, Unitarians, &c., &c. The people of Georgia generally are a church-going people. Numerous camp-meetings are held in the middle and upper part of the state. The owners

of slaves in many parts are taking active measures to have them instructed in the principles of Christianity."—*P.* 104.

And so ends the general summary at the beginning of Mr. White's book. He then goes on, takes up each county in its alphabetical order, and, under the heads of *Boundaries*, *Rivers and Creeks*, *Population*, *Taxes*, *Representation*, *Post-offices*, *Towns*, *Face of the Country*, *Soil*, *Productions*, *Climate*, *Diseases*, *Religious Sects*, *Education*, *Roads*, *Early Settlers*, *Character*, *Amusements*, *and various other heads*, gives minute and varied, (we wish we could add also accurate,) details and statistics in reference to the several counties. Candor compels us to say, however, our author is not as accurate as we expect him to be in his next edition. After giving the statistics of each county, under the above heads, he gives a short history of the person after whom the county was called; in which he is a mere copyist of Sherwood in his Gazetteer of Georgia.

At the close of the book our author gives tables showing the names of the gentlemen from Georgia who signed the Declaration of Independence, the names of those who signed the Articles of Confederation, names of the Delegates to the Convention which framed the Constitution, members of the Continental Congress, and Senators and Representatives to Congress from the commencement of the government under the Constitution up to 1847. Then there is a general summary or chronology of the civil and military history of the state down to 1849. Next follows, which closes the book, catalogues of the Fauna and Flora of the State of Georgia, prepared for the work by eminent naturalists—comprising mammals, birds, reptiles, fishes, insects, crustacea, shells and plants.

We would like to be able to give an account here of the two millions of capital in this state invested in manufactures. We would like to be able to give accurate information in reference to the mining operations of Georgia—her lime-kilns, her iron-foundries, her commerce and shipping, her flour mills, her operations in lumber, her medicinal waters and fashionable summer resorts, her romantic scenery, caves, mountains, &c. But our author gives us no general summary of these things, and whatever meagre information we can get upon these several subjects, is scattered throughout the book. The want of a general summing up in these matters is one of the faults of the book. Another is, that our author is too easily imposed upon by his credulity. We almost fancy Herodotus himself giving an account of what he has seen and heard in Georgia. Mr. White can appropriate the compliment, if it is one. A third fault is, that he does not go as far from a parallel with Sherwood's Gazetteer of Georgia as originality would seem to require.

We had intended to go more minutely into an examination of the faults of our author's book, and we had intended to fill up some of the departments which he has left blank, and which we mentioned above. Our article has been extended to such length, however, that we dismiss White's statistics for the present, intimating that we may take up the subject again at some future day, and expressing the

hope that the author will, by due improvement in his next edition, save us the trouble of compiling information from other sources, upon the subjects which he has touched too lightly in his present edition, and from the unpleasant task of pointing out, in detail, a host of errors.

ART. II.—MANUFACTURE OF SUGAR.*

THE OPERATION OF REFINING—DEFECTS OF PRESENT SYSTEM—GENERAL SUMMARY, &C.

THE term, sugar refining, is applied, as is well known, to the operation, or series of operations, by means of which the dark impurities are extracted or separated from white sugar, and the latter is isolated.

Hence the terms, white sugar and refined sugar, have grown to be synonymous; and the idea has been created that white sugar must necessarily be the product of a second operation. This notion is most fallacious; and not more fallacious than injurious: by causing the impression, that no such body as white sugar could be primarily extracted from the cane-juice, or other sugar-containing juices.

Very frequently do we hear the colonial sugar-growers subjected to many, and adverse remarks, because they have not, as it has been asserted, developed their art, with the rapidity that modern scientific aids would have enabled them to do.

Much of this animadversion is unjust; for, not only until the passing of Sir Robert Peel's Sugar Bill, in 1843, was the colonial sugar producer not encouraged to make a product beyond a certain limit of goodness, but he was not permitted to do so; every step he took in this direction being checked by a high protective duty, with the object of favoring the home refineries.

Immediately the sugar duties were re-adjusted, the intelligent colonial sugar-growers availed themselves of the opportunity to improve their staple; but, unfortunately, they began with machinery instead of chemistry. They relied on improved means of boiling; not having yet procured the proper liquid to be boiled. Whilst their new experiments were being prosecuted,—whilst they were bearing most stoically their present losses, and looking forward to a brighter future, England became deluged with finer sugars of Cuba and Brazil, made by the claying operation. The West India sugar-grower was undersold, and, too frequently, ruined. Often do we hear the question put—wherefore the West India sugar-grower does not practice the claying process? The question manifests little acquaintance with the subject at issue. The process of claying, be it remembered, is not indicative of an improved sugar manufacture, as is commonly supposed; but merely indicative of the fact that, at

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* Concluded from Jan. No., 1851.

the expense of time, of labor, and a third of the material operated on, it has been deemed expedient to accomplish the washing out a certain amount of impurities from Muscovado sugar. These facts being well considered as premises, the conclusion may very safely be arrived at—that the claying operation can only be remuneratively practiced under one of the following conditions:—Either in communities where slavery prevails, or where the price of labor (as in India) falls below the usual average.*

But to return to the subject of sugar refining.

In commencing the study of this manufacturing operation, it will be useful to consider the theoretical indications to be followed out.

The substance to be operated upon is raw sugar; and the object to be kept in view is—to extract the maximum of impurities, with the minimum of expense, and of loss.

It has been already remarked, that if muscovado, or yellow sugar, were contaminated by chemical or soluble impurities only, the processes of claying and liquoring would effectually remove them. This, however, is far from being the case. If a portion of the purest colonial sugar (made without animal charcoal) be dissolved in water, the presence of mechanical or floating impurities will be very manifest. Such impurities must be got rid of at any cost, before the sugar can be refined. The most obvious way of accomplishing this removal, would seem to consist in mechanical filtration through fibrous textures, followed by evaporation; and this succeeded by the processes of claying and liquoring.

It happens, however, that, even were this process the most desirable, as well as the most obvious, yet the filtration of such sugar in thick solution is no very easy matter,—on account of the glutinous nature of the chemical colored impurities: as the experimenter may prove by means of a filter of paper; however, by allowing sufficient time,—the thing, as an experiment, may be done; and I will suppose it done, for the sake of the next demonstration.

The liquor, when so filtered, if placed between the eye and a ray of light, will be found to be entirely free from the mechanical impurities formerly visible; but it will be as dark from the presence of chemical impurities as before filtration. The indication, therefore, is obviously, to reduce those chemical impurities, by means of some combination, to a mechanical, or filtrable condition. The usual agent employed for this purpose in refineries, is an aqueous solution of lime; that is to say—lime-water.

If a portion of the dark filtered solution be mixed with a portion of lime-water, in a test tube, and heated by a spirit-lamp flame, a manifest change will be observed. A portion of the soluble impurities will be found to become insoluble, assuming the condition of brownish flakes, and rendering the solution turbid.

The liquor now will be found to pass much more readily through a paper filter than before; and, moreover, it will have been considerably lightened as to color.

* This remark only refers to the actual use of clay, not to the operation termed claying in refineries.

If the filtration process be conducted with less care, the liquor, as it passes through, will be contaminated with a portion of the separated impurities; which, in point of fact, are so delicate in their physical nature, that the slightest force breaks them up and partially re-dissolves them:—a circumstance which, as may be imagined, would materially impede the filtering operation on a large scale. However, for the purpose of demonstration, it can be, and sometimes is, accomplished.

If a little white of egg and lime-water be mixed with a portion of the solution, while cold, and the mixture be then heated in another test tube, the same kind of result will be accomplished as in the last experiment, but with this addition:—the albumen of the white of egg, or the blood during coagulation, will envelope each floating particle of the mechanical impurity developed by the agency of lime, and bring it to the surface of the liquor in the form of scum; leaving the subnatant fluid clear and bright.

If the result of the last experiment be filtered, a fluid will come through,—red, if blood has been employed; yellowish or amber, if the white of egg. Either of these solutions, on being evaporated, evolves an animal smell, and eventually yields crystals, from which the non-crystalline portion may be drained, and the crystals rendered white, by the process of claying, (real or virtual,) either alone, or succeeded by the process of liquoring.

If, instead of evaporating the liquid immediately after passing through the filter, it is made to percolate through granular bone black, the result is marvellously improved. Every trace of color is dissipated, and the liquor feels less glutinous to the touch; it has acquired also, (owing to the removal of impurities,) an increased facility of crystallization. The smell of the animal matter, however, generally remains.

Having gone through these preliminaries, we are now in a position to contemplate the process of refining, as now prosecuted.

A good refinery should consist of not less than four floors;—if more, all the better. Its walls should be strong, its planks well-seasoned, and close; and steam-pipes should be laid on throughout, so that a temperature of 80° can be easily commanded everywhere, except on the ground-floor, or fill-house, the bastard curing-room, and the stove; the former of which will require a temperature of 120°, and the latter of 112° to 115° Fahr.

Through the middle of each floor is a large square hole, capable of being shut by means of a trap-door; and through which the sugar is pulled, from the lowest floor to the highest, by means of a gin or small crane.

This is the best arrangement for a refinery; although the details of arrangement may vary considerably. The conditions which I have laid down, are adapted to the supposition that the sugar is dissolved on the highest floor, and that it is subsequently worked down to the lowest; where, having been boiled, it is filled into moulds. These conditions are the most natural, and the most rational; but they are sometimes violated; the sugar being dissolved on one of

the lower floors, and, subsequently, lifted again. By this latter method of procedure the height of a floor or story can be saved; but the operation of pumping is usually involved,—an operation which is never to be recommended.*

Another floor or story in the refineries is frequently saved by a less objectionable plan,—the liquor prepared for boiling being discharged on the ground-floor, and sucked up into the vacuum-pan on the second.

Wherever in a refinery the process be commenced, the first operation consists in effecting the solution of sugar, in such a mixture of water, lime-water, and blood,—technically called spice,—that the resulting liquor, at the temperature of 212° Fahr., shall have a specific gravity by preference of about 1.241—equivalent to 28 degrees of Beaumé's saccharometer. This operation, which is called *blowing-up*,—is thus performed:

The blow-up pan is a square or rectangular painted iron, or, much better, plain copper, tank—supplied with a perforated false bottom, under which is laid horizontally a three-armed tubular perforated pipe of copper, in connection with a steam-main. The use of this arrangement will be presently obvious. The sugar being put into the pan along with the predetermined quantity of blood, lime-water, and water—the quantities of each being adjusted by no fixed rule,—the blow-up man lets on his current of steam, which, penetrating into the arms of the trifid horizontal pipe, emerges in sharp jets through the small apertures of the latter, and heats the contents of the blow-up pan with great rapidity to the boiling temperature. For this blow-up operation, some houses use high pressure steam, some low pressure. There is now a prevailing opinion in favor of the latter, in consequence of a belief that high pressure steam is destructive of sugar. Mr. Pontifex† now prepares a solution-pan, similar in construction to the heater:—i. e. the necessary heat is imparted by means of a steam-jacket, thus avoiding the escape of any steam into the solution. This gentleman informs me that the advantages attendant upon the use of this form of pan are very great; a perceptibly larger amount of product, and of better quality, being the result. That the injection of high-pressure steam into sugar solutions is destructive, is rendered highly probable by the investigations of M. Violette, who has proved that wood may be carbonized by means of steam of only 6 lbs. pressure to the inch. (See *Journ. de Chim. et de Physique*, 1848.)

The result of boiling the contents of the blow-up pan will have been anticipated from a consideration of the experiment I have supposed to have been performed in a test-tube; a thick, bulky, offensive scum arises to the surface of the liquid, which might be skimmed off with tolerable facility, and the subnatant liquor left in a state approaching to mechanical purity. This skimming, however,

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* Liquor can be raised by the pressure of steam much better than by the more common operation of pumping.

† The Messrs. Shears, of Bankside, have since borne testimony to the same effect.

is never practiced in the present day, filtration being had recourse to, as a much more efficacious plan.

The process of filtration now universally adopted, is the bag filtration system, as it is called; and which offers the advantage of a very large surface, comprehended within a very small space.

The bag-filter consists of a sack about 5½ feet long, made of twilled cotton, prepared for this specific use. When to be employed it is used as follows:—The bag itself, which is about two feet broad, is squeezed loosely into a smaller bag, (open at the bottom,) made of very coarse material, and technically known as the sheath. By this arrangement the whole filtering area of the bag is effective, although it is made to occupy very small dimensions. Each bag, with its accompanying sheath, is tied by the following device to a brass nozzle, slightly expanding at one end, to which the bag is affixed, and having a screw turned at the other end. The mouth of the bag, along with its sheath, having been brought well over the bell of the brass nozzle, is tied, sheath and all, moderately tight, by means of strong cord. As it would be next to impossible, however, to whip the cord sufficiently tight to prevent the bag slipping off, on a weight of sugar being poured into it, the following plan of tightening it is had recourse to. A small copper bar, of about four inches in length, being pushed under the cord, is twisted round until the necessary degree of tightness has been effected. The bar is now kept in position, and the twist prevented from returning by means of a second turn of the cord. Many of these bags, usually about thirty-six, are hung in one series, as will be presently described; of which series there must be two.

A cast-iron tray, perforated with the requisite number of screw-holes to correspond with the number of bell-nozzles, is made to form the upper part or roof of a wrought-iron chest, supplied with doors, removable at pleasure, and rendered air-tight in their frames, during filtration, by means of tow and red lead made into a pad, (which engineers call *a gaskin.*)

At the inferior part of this chest are two exit cocks; one supplied with a pipe, that conducts the filtered fluid away, and the other, technically called the foul-liquor cock, through which a portion of the filtered liquor may be examined, from time to time.

One other orifice has to be mentioned;—it is for the purpose of admitting steam: in an atmosphere of which the filter-bags are caused to remain, during the whole period that filtration goes on. This is for the purpose of enabling the liquor to maintain its temperature—therefore to remain liquid; and hence, to pass through readily.

The filter-chest and its accessories having been thus described, the operation of bag-filtration will be readily understood. The let-off cock at the blow-up pan being turned, the blow-up liquor necessarily runs into the trays forming the roof of the filter-chest; thence into the bag-filters, and from them into the lower part of the chest. The first few buckets full of liquor which pass are always turbid. The liquor is, therefore, allowed to flow away through the foul-liquor

cock, until a portion, being examined in a wine-glass or phial by the transmitted light of a candle or lamp, appears quite bright.

This period having arrived, the whole mass of liquor is allowed to run on to the charcoal-filter, or cistern, as it is more generally called. These charcoal-filters, or cisterns, are of various shapes, and made of various materials. The usual material is iron, and the usual shape that of a cylinder of about sixteen feet high, or more,—by eight feet in diameter. Interiorly, the cylinder is supplied with a false and perforated bottom, on which is laid a piece of woollen. If made of iron, the cylinder should be internally well-painted with two coats of white lead on one of red. Copper is the preferable metal, but few refiners will encounter the expense of using it for charcoal cisterns.

Instead of the deep charcoal cistern just described, some manufacturers employ shallow tanks of iron or lead. The only advantage which these shallow tanks present over deep cisterns is,—that they are better adapted to low buildings, and do not involve any perforation of the floors. Unquestionably, the decolorizing effect of charcoal is best exercised by the use of deep cisterns.

Whatever the form of the charcoal cisterns, they should never be made of, or lined with, lead, inasmuch as a crust of carbonate of the metal becomes formed, and no sooner formed than dissolved in the sugar solution; where it may be generally found, if sought for. In this way I discovered, in the first day's liquor of one of the largest London refineries, a considerable amount of lead.

I do not advert to this subject with the object of proving that the amount of lead present in the solution would have exercised any perceptibly noxious effect on the health,—or any perceptible destructive agency on the sugar,—but to record the fact of its presence, and thus to guard future experimenters from referring the origin of such lead to any specific process of refining, in which the acetates of lead have been employed, and from which they have been totally separated.

The process of conducting filtrations through bone black, although remarkably simple in theory, yet requires some amount of practice to insure the maximum of success. The principal results to be aimed at are—to accomplish the maximum rapidity of percolation, with the minimum of coloring matter left in the filtered liquor.

This due rapidity of percolation is sometimes regulated by the exit-cock, under the false bottom of the charcoal-cistern—in which case the upper part of the cistern, above the margin of the charcoal, serves the purpose of a tank of reception for the whole bulk of the liquor, which has come away from the bag-filters. In other establishments, the charcoal-cistern is supplied with a cover perforated with two holes—through one of which the liquor is allowed to enter—through the other, a jet of steam; which latter is said to prevent fermentation, and to impart to the charcoal that amount of temperature most conducive to the desired decolorizing effect. In any case the outside of the cistern should be protected against cooling influences, by a coating of felt, and a casing of wood.

In allowing the liquor, as it comes from the bag-filter, to run on to the charcoal, care should always be taken to prevent the surface of the charcoal from being much disturbed. This object is usually attained by allowing the steam to impinge on some hard body laid upon the charcoal;—a piece of broken pot, or a brick tile, is commonly used.

Whether the liquor be allowed to run on to the charcoal gradually, or whether it be poured on at once, the surface of the charcoal should never be suffered to become dry. This neglect would infallibly cause the resulting filtrate—or filtrated liquor—to be turbid, or, as the refiners say, *milky*.

If deep cisterns be used, the liquor need not be caused to linger in the charcoal, by turning off the exit-cock, or otherwise—the first produce of filtration being usually perfectly decolorized and bright. Wherever shallow tanks are employed, however, the charcoal must be allowed to soak or digest with the liquid for a considerable time, before the latter is fit to draw off.

It is said, in general terms, that one ton of bone-black, well-burned, is capable of perfectly decolorizing three of sugar. But this remark must necessarily be vague, and open to modifications, due to the influence of many collateral circumstances; as the reader will easily recognize. It must not be imagined, however, that the refiner unpacks his charcoal so soon as it ceases to effect the perfect deprivation of all color. He allows it, in point of fact, to remain until the last portions of filtered liquor, instead of being colorless, are considerably darker than dark sherry.

The refiner, however, manages in this way: He commences his refine* by using newly-burned charcoal and good sugars; he then goes on using sugars more and more impure, until the end of the third or fourth day, distinguishing his liquor as first day's, second day's, and third day's liquor, &c.; from each of which, respectively, are prepared sugars of corresponding quality.

In order to judge of the mechanical purity of liquor from the charcoal cisterns, it is submitted to a very vigorous optical test: a wine-glass or small phial full being collected, is held between the flame of a candle and the eye, when the slightest speck of mechanical impurity is perceptible, and is considered improper. If these mechanical impurities exist beyond a certain amount, the result is a cloudiness or opalescence; and the sugar produced from such liquors will be generally of a grayish cast. As regards chemical impurities, they are very seldom sought after by refiners, who entertain the most fallacious notion,—that bone-black filtration is competent to remove all bodies, of whatever kind, except sugar and water. The opinion is in nothing more unfounded than in respect to lime—a body which refiners imagine to be most especially removed by the charcoal filtering operation. The fact, however, is, that lime, both combined and in the caustic form, may be generally, if not invaria-

* A refine is the series of consecutive solutions, or *blows-up*, upon which one charcoal-filter system is made to act.

bly, detected, by means of the appropriate tests; and, if the blow-up pan be of iron, or if the painted internal coating of the iron charcoal-cistern be abraded, distinct traces of this metal will also be discoverable. Indeed, refiners often suffer from the existence of iron oxide in their sugars—to which red streaks or spots are thus imparted.*

I will now assume a sufficient quantity of liquor to have come away from the charcoal, to admit of the operations of vacuum boiling. The let-off cock of the charcoal-cistern I will assume to communicate with a tank placed above the level of the vacuum-pan—so that the liquor contained in the tank shall fall into the measure, and thence into the vacuum-pan, by the force of gravity.

The operation of vacuum boiling.—When treating of the subject of colonial sugar manufacture, so full a description of the vacuum-pan, and of the general process of vacuum boiling, has been given, that it only remains here to be remarked that, whether in the colonies, or in refineries, the operation and the end to be achieved by it are the same.

The reader will therefore assume that the liquor, having come from the charcoal tanks, has been subjected to the process of boiling, and has subsequently been allowed to remain in the heater for the necessary period, (say half an hour for good solutions,) to admit of the grain becoming sufficiently developed,—the operation of filling the moulds or cones begins.

These moulds for loaves or crushed lump, and occasionally pieces, are either made of sheet iron, painted white internally—or of copper. The larger moulds, however, employed for accomplishing the drainage of bastards, are generally made of rough clay ware.

For every kind of mould, copper is the best material; but the great expense of using it is a drawback to its general use, to such an extent, that very few of the more wealthy sugar refiners employ this metal, for any mould above the size necessary to contain a fourteen pound loaf.

Previous to the commencement of the filling operation, the moulds standing in triple or quadruple row, the hole in the apex of each accurately plugged with a pledget of brown paper, technically called "*a stop*," are placed base upwards around the fill-house, in such a manner that the rearmost row is supported by the wall, and each successive row by one behind. Thus arranged, the greatest portion of the area of the fill-house is clear, enabling the operator, or operators, to fill any mould at pleasure.

The art of filling is very simple: one man dips, by means of a

* More than one patent has been taken out for the use of iron-salts, as agents to defecate or purify sugars; and iron preparations have been lately tried in the house of Messrs. Fairrie—but with invariable want of success. Terry's Patent, involving the use of prussiate of potash and sulphuric acid, and thus liberating a cyanogen salt of potassium and iron (the bi-ferro-cyanide of potassium) was tried in the house of Messrs. M'Fie, of Liverpool; and, I am assured by one of the firm, with the result of coloring the goods—in this case *blue*—owing to the re-action of the undecomposed prussiate on a portion of liberated iron oxide.

copper ladle, a portion of the crystallized mass, which he pours into the fill-basin, an instrument something like a copper coal-scuttle, with two small handles. This fill-basin, when charged with its con-

tents, is carried underhanded, and somewhat between the legs of the fill-house man, to its destination,—i. e., the moulds, which are then filled to the brim.

If the moulds were now left merely filled, their contents would aggregate irregularly, and a good loaf would not result. Some little time after the operation of filling, therefore, the process of hauling, as it is technically called, is had recourse to. It consists in agitating or incorporating, by means of a wooden spatula, some two or three inches in depth of the filled mass. Care, however, is taken not to push the hauling spatula too deep into the contents.

The process of hauling having been gone through, the cones are allowed to remain in the fill-house for a period varying with the size of the loaves—and hence of the mass to be cooled. Supposing 14 lbs. loaves to be the size, a period of twelve hours is amply sufficient.

The filled moulds are now put into a basket, let down through the *pull-up hole*, and elevated to the second floor,* called the liquor loft, where the important operations, first, of natural drainage, then drain-

* The ground floor being considered the first.

age effected by claying and liquoring, are conducted. Formerly, as I have remarked under the Def. Claying, real clay was employed, but now a mixture (not solution) of sugar and water—to which the term clay is applied—has taken its place.

As soon as the filled moulds arrive in the liquor loft, each is placed over a glazed earthen pot, the paper stops having been previously removed; and a bradawl is pushed up into the mass to the extent of two or three inches. Drainage now proceeds with an amount of rapidity dependent on the amount of concentration to which the mass had been brought by evaporation, and on the absence of glucose and other impurities. If the evaporative concentration have not been carried very far, the result is said to be low—or free-boiled;—if the contrary,—the designation high, or stiff-boiled, is applied.

As heavy compact loaves are a great desideratum to refiners—owing to the great cohesion of such loaves enabling them to withstand, without much injury, the agencies of damp air, and the various mechanical shocks to which they will hereafter be exposed,—it is a main object in the refinery operation to carry the evaporative agency to the maximum extent, consistent with free subsequent drainage. If carried beyond certain limits, however, the loaves either will not drain at all, or their syrup runs away with such difficulty that a great monetary loss is incurred. In refineries, the object of boiling *stiff* is intelligible enough, and founded on a scientific principle. In the colonies, the object, although intelligible, is most fallacious, and in direct contravention to all scientific indications. The colonial sugar grower, who argues the existence of a refinery precedent for stiff boiling, forgets this most important difference, that, whilst the refiner boils as stiff as is consistent with free drainage,—he, the colonist, boils stiff, whether he can drain or no.

When the first or natural syrup of drainage has ceased to flow, each mould is removed, and a few inches (equal to the depth disturbed by the operation of hauling) of the mass removed by a revolving blade, with a central axis connected to a fly-wheel, and worked by a grindstone handle. This instrument is termed the *facing* machine, and the chilled and badly-crystallized sugar thus removed falls into a box.

The contents of the moulds after natural drainage are said to be *in the green*, and the portions removed are termed *green cuttings*.

The moulds with their contents are now set again upon pots, (the same or others, at the operator's pleasure,) and preparations for the claying operation are made. The green cuttings being put into a pan, are kneaded with water at first into a doughy consistence; and, finally, more water is added, until the whole is reduced to the condition of a thinnish magma, termed *clay*.

Upon the base of each cone, again placed on the syrup pots, is now poured so much of this clay as is sufficient to about half replace the amount of material cut away by the operation of facing.

FACING-MACHINE.

In order to understand the precise rationale of the process of claying, it is necessary to remember that the claying agent is a saturated solution of sugar almost pure in water, mixed with a larger portion of sugar, suspended but not dissolved. No sooner does the clay agent touch the surface of sugar in the mould, than a downward current of sugar solution is established; carrying before it a portion of colored syrup, and causing the base of the sugar-cone, to the extent of some inches, to assume a white appearance.

One operation of claying, however, is insufficient to effect a perfect whiteness throughout the loaf, and a repetition of the operation is not so effective as the process of *liquoring*, which is now in refineries universally followed. The liquor used for this operation is a saturated solution of pure sugar and water. It is prepared by dissolving in pure water—*i. e.*, not containing lime or spice—a porous kind of lump-sugar—such as results from the latter working of the refine, on the fourth day—in a blow-up pan, used exclusively for this purpose; and filtering the solution through a charcoal cistern in the ordinary way, but with much care. When filtered, it should be colorless, and should possess a density at least of 32° Beau., at a temperature of 70° Fahr. Owing to its possessing this high density, magma liquor is not prone to ferment; it may, therefore, be kept in tanks for a considerable time without danger. These liquor tanks, however, should be situated in a cool part of the building:—their usual position being under the roof in a loft, to which the external air has free access.

The operation of liquoring is commonly performed by means of a garden water-pot, without the rose; and simply consists in pouring upon the base of each conical lump of sugar, yet in the mould, as

much as the mould will contain, an even surface having been previously made by an instrument termed the *bottoming trowel.*

The operation of this liquoring is precisely like that of claying, which has been described in detail; and it effects the total separation by drainage of all chemical coloring matter. Fourteen pound loaves, if made of well-purified sugar, should be rendered neat or white by two successive liquorings.

It is almost too obvious a matter for comment, or indication, that the last syrups of drainage, technically called *drips*, resulting from the operation of liquoring, are much purer; or, in other words, contain much more sugar than the natural syrup of drainage, and that resulting from the operation of claying. Accordingly the drips are collected, and put into a tank alone, to be hereafter boiled up with a fresh working of sugar.

It will easily be observed, whether a loaf requires more liquoring or not, by lifting it from the pot, and noticing the color of the syrup which leaks away. This observation, it is scarcely necessary to remark, should be made when the drainage has almost ceased. If the drops are limpid, the operation has been complete, and the loaves are said to be *neat:* if they are colored, another liquoring is indicated.

The loaves are now allowed to remain for two or three days, when the clay is cut or scraped away from their surface by a kind of triangular blade. This operation is called brushing off. The loaves are slightly loosened in their moulds by striking the edges of the latter smartly against the upper end of a vertical post. This loosening contributes to perfect the drainage.

At the stage of loosening, a loaf may be completely removed from its mould, for the purpose of effecting an examination; which examination, in point of fact, is frequently made. When the loaves have become sufficiently dry to permit of being handled, they are taken out of the moulds, and their apices or noses are trimmed into regular form by means of the *nosing* machine, an instrument consisting of three cutting blades, so arranged on a rotatory shaft that the desired angle for the apices shall result.

Not only is this operation of nosing desirable, for the purpose of imparting a sharp, well-defined apex to the loaf, but also for removing a small amount of dark-colored sugar, of which the apex is, under the most favorable circumstances, composed. The efficacy of the claying and liquoring operations depends on the preponderance of gravity over capillary attraction. Hence there may be conceived a theoretical limit at which the two forces are balanced: practically, this point of equalization between the two forces is at a few inches above the apex of the cone, and corresponds with the limit of impure sugar.

Occasionally, when liquors have been overboiled, or when the

material operated upon has been impure sugar, the point of equalization between the two forces is many inches above the normal line. To expedite the drainage of such cones they are stuck into a kind of funnel, the neck of which joins a suction-pipe in communication with the air-pump of the vacuum-pan. The result of this treatment is too obvious for comment.

The operation of *nosing* is never performed on the larger kind of loaves, which are known in commerce under the denomination of lumps; but the colored portion of the apex is simply cut off by means of a knife struck by a mallet.

The loaves now, if sufficiently dry, are wrapped in paper, and the last traces of moisture driven off by the operation of stoving. The stove is a chamber, or rather a hollow tower, provided with many rows of trellis work, and heated by steam-pipes to a temperature not above 115° Fahr. If higher, the sugar is discolored. The operation of stoving lasts about three days, when the loaves being taken out are ready for sale.

If, instead of loaves, the manufacturer desired to obtain the material known as crushed lump, the contents of the moulds would never be stoved at all; but when sufficiently dry, they would be taken out, and struck with a mallet, until reduced to a mass of disaggregated crystals. At least this is the plan followed in making the better kind of crushed lump. In Scotland, however, where crushed lump is employed more largely than in England, and where the maximum of whiteness is no object, the processes of claying and liquoring are omitted, the natural drainage of the sugar being sufficient to effect the desired result. I am informed, however, by a Scotch refiner, that for this operation the very best sugar must be used, and that it must be boiled very low or free.

Much of the economy of refining depends on the proper employment of the syrups of drainage, and on this point the following axiom should never be lost sight of—*That every syrup of drainage is more impure for equal specific gravities of aqueous solution, than the sugar from which it has drained.*

This axiom will indicate the following rule to be adopted in the treatment of syrups:—namely, to add the purest syrup to the purest sugar, and *vice versa.*

In proportion as sugar solutions are more frequently reboiled, so do their impurities continue to increase, (pp. 36, 57, and seq.,) until at length the impurities, when washed out, leave the crystals of sugar so far asunder, that the mass, instead of being hard and compact, is so porous that pressure with the end of a stick leaves an indentation: such masses could not be stoved for loaves, neither could they be profitably broken down for crushed lump, inasmuch as the crystals are small and ill-developed, in consequence of being admixed with so many impurities that the operation of crystallization has been impeded.

Chemically speaking, however, they consist, or by adequate liquoring can be made to consist, of sugar as pure as the hardest loaves; they therefore serve for making the magma liquor as already described.

When the impurities have so accumulated in syrups, that it is no longer profitable to obtain the white sugar out of them by the process of claying and liquoring, a compromise is effected of the following kind. They are no longer liquored with magma liquor, which would not be remunerative, but with syrup; and the result is called pieces. This is the real Jamaica sugar of many grocers.

When the material to be boiled is not sufficiently good to yield a light yellow product, dark clammy semi-crystallized masses are obtained, technically known as bastards. It cannot be too emphatically expressed, however, that the terms, pieces and bastards, are purely conventional;—that no intrinsic or essential difference whatever exists between them;—that both are admixtures of sugar with impurities;—and that such impurities *may* be separated—although it be not remunerative to do so.

Indeed the demonstration of this may be easily effected, by rubbing the pieces, or bastards, with alcohol, and filtering through paper. Cold alcohol does not dissolve sugar, but it readily dissolves the glucose and dark acids with which the latter is associated, and leaves the sugar nearly pure. The latter, if dissolved in water, and carefully evaporated, leaves a result not distinguishable from that arising from any other pure sugar solution.

Bastards being the most impure kind of refinery crystallized produce, the reader will have anticipated the remark, that the syrup of drainage from bastards is treacle.

The direct refinery operation being now gone through, it remains for me to describe the collateral processes of the scum, and charcoal departments. The reader will therefore revert to the filter bags,—which necessarily contain all the mechanical impurities, or scum, as it is called, developed by the operation of boiling the mixture of raw sugar, water, lime water, and blood.

This scum, being somewhat bulky, must necessarily contain a large amount of sugar, to lose which would be totally irreconcilable with the close economy of civilized manufacture. The simplest plan in theory, to obtain such sugar,—would seem to be the common laboratory process of washing. So glutinous, however, is the impurity, and so bulky, that hot water will not pass through with the necessary rapidity: hence other means of extracting the contained sugar must be adopted. These means are as follows:—The bags being turned inside out, the contained scum is transferred to larger bags (scum bags) and exposed first to a pressure effected by the imposition of weights; afterwards, it is boiled with lime water;—and finally exposed to the pressure of a screw, or of hydrostatic power; by which means the greater portion of the sugar is removed.

When removed, the liquor—scum liquor, as it is called—is one of the most impure, offensive liquids that can well be conceived. Its color resembles porter;—its smell that of putrid blood;—its taste, according to such evidence as I can collect, is somewhat sweet. On this latter point I am free to own that I can bear no direct testimony.

If there be any truth in the chemical deduction previously arrived at, viz.: that the rapidity of decomposition for sugar solutions, *cæteris paribus*, is in direct ratio to the amount of impurities contained—this scum liquor must be a focus of so much mischief that it should never, under any pretext, be incorporated with the raw sugar of a refine. But now the practical question arises:—what is to be done with it? To evaporate so weak a solution of sugar and water—even devoid of impurities—would be practically impossible—seeing that the process of evaporation must be prolonged to the extent of destroying the chief part of the sugar. Then how much are the difficulties of the position increased by the presence of animal matters and lime! In fact, scum liquor is surrounded by most unyielding conditions; not only must it be added to the next *blow-up*, but added *at once*, or else fermentation sets in and it is decomposed.

It is evident, then, that the present operation of sugar refining is one of gradually increasing deterioration. On account of the necessity the refiner is under of adding impure saccharine solutions to such as are comparatively pure, he pursues a system of working in and in, most destructive to the staple of his operations; and were it not that treacle is a general receptacle for impurities, refineries would run themselves out, or be brought to a close.

This system of in and in work is one cause which prevents a refiner from knowing the exact per centage amount of produce yielded by any given sugar; but there is another, namely, that involved by the use of magma liquor, which necessarily confuses the weighed results.

Refiners have been thought extremely tenacious in guarding against the disclosure of the per centage amount of sugar obtained, and doubtless that tendency exists; but, in strict truth, they cannot tell, so much is one operation involved in those which precede and follow.

It is not here asserted that a refiner cannot, by taking the average of a considerable period, obtain a general result of his produce; but to ascertain the amount of pure sugar obtained from any given sample, is, by the present refinery operation, impossible.

To illustrate the unsatisfactory looseness of the deductions which are sometimes made from inadequate data furnished by the refining operation, the following narrative will suffice. I was shown a kind of laboratory-book belonging to a London refiner, and in which the assertion was made, that about 82 pounds of white sugar out of 112 of raw material were obtained in his establishment: no experiments were mentioned, but merely the dictum laid down. I subsequently examined the boiler as to the means by which the deduction was arrived at; when it appeared that the deduction was not proved, but merely assumed, as being in accordance with certain experiments made,—not in the refinery, but in the laboratory. The process of liquoring was not adopted in these experiments, but the sugar in the green state was assumed to have a certain per centage of coloring matter. "After all," remarked the boiler very candidly, "I never could see

how this result of 82 pounds was ever arrived at; and I consider the result of our best working to be more like 75 or 76."

There is a considerable affectation prevalent among refiners, of considering their manufacture absolutely perfect. A very large London refiner would lead the world to believe that he does not produce in his refinery any bastards. He does not *sell* any, it is true, considering it more profitable to purify this product to the extent of enabling it to be converted into pieces. This same refiner also entertains the notion, that he absolutely extracts *all* the sugar out of his scum; whereas I know, on authority that is unquestionable, that he sells the scum of one of his refineries alone for 5*l.* per week to a party who converts it into bastards and treacle.

Most refiners have an instinctive horror of owning to the employment of blood. I once was taken to a London sugar house, which has the credit of being considerably in advance of others in the general economy of the whole operation. Amongst other matters, I was informed that no blood was used. A personal examination of the blow-up pan, however, during an operation, corrected the error fully to the satisfaction of myself and friends. Having viewed attentively every part of this refinery, I found that the only difference between it and many others which I had seen, consisted in the remarkable cleanliness of the floors.

The Treatment of Charcoal.—In London many refiners do not reburn their own bone black; indeed some refiners possess none of their own, but rent the material at a stated price. Others, however, burn their charcoal, even in London: in the provinces the plan is universal.

Although various processes have been tried for effecting the purification of animal charcoal without the aid of heat, they have all been discontinued; and the process of dry distillation is universally had recourse to. This process is now, I believe, universally conducted in cast iron retorts,—either exposed to the direct action of the fire, or set in a kind of oven, according to the most approved plan followed by manufacturers of coal gas. Not only do retorts, when exposed to the direct agency of fire, become speedily destroyed by oxidation, but occasionally the bone black is apt to be over-burned, whereas in the dome-set retorts this result cannot occur.

That over-burning of bone black is injurious, has been recognized by many persons, but I am not aware that the reason of the injury has been explained. Indeed, to recognize the full amount of that injury, for the sake of making an extreme case, a special experiment is required: inasmuch as it is scarcely possible to apply the necessary amount of heat to a large retort, even when acted upon by the open fire. The first evidence of incipient overburning of the bone black is a peculiar glazed appearance which the grains possess, and which is probably a mere physical effect, and dependent on an increased density of mass, from the close approximation of particles. If the heat be pushed still further, the agency of the charcoal in the bone black on the accompanying phosphates, liberates such an amount of phosphorus, that any sugar solution passed through such charcoal is com-

pletely spoiled. In the dome-set retorts, not even the first ill effect can well occur. The decolorizing effect of bone black is much impaired if it be not washed free from sugar before burning: such is the fact, but the rationale is not understood.

During the process of burning, the bone black gives off a great quantity of gaseous and condensable empyreumatic products, amongst which ammonia, and Dippel's animal oil, predominate; thus proving, if any evidence were wanted, how far the legitimate influence of the bone black, as a mere decolorizing agent on sugar, has been interfered with by the presence of the animalized matters derived from blood. As soon as the evolution of volatile matter has ceased, the charcoal is raked out with all due rapidity into iron chests, and at once covered over, so that all ingress of air may be prevented; otherwise a large portion of the charcoal would be consumed.

As regards the theory of the action of bone black, I confess myself entirely ignorant. Although cognizant of the various theories which have been mooted from time to time to explain this agency, I have met with no explanation yet that seems at all satisfactory; and want of time has prevented me from devoting any great attention to the matter.

I am far from convinced that the decolorizing agency is due to the charcoal of the bone black in the least degree; and, so far as I have seen, the opinions of Messrs. Gwynne and Young, recorded in the Annals of Medicine for June, 1837, would appear to be correct: —namely, that the agency is due to the 90 per cent. of phosphates of lime and ferruginous compounds, with which the 10 per cent. of charcoal in bone black are associated. I may mention, also, that this opinion is advocated by Mr. Fairrie, the refiner, of London, Liverpool, and Glasgow.

The chief defects of the present refinery operation are as follows:

1. The necessity of employing lime water and blood.
2. The great accumulation of sweet waters arising from the washing of the charcoal.
3. The process of in and in workings.
4. The deteriorating influence of scum liquor on solutions of sugar.

After the exposition which has already been given, of the injurious agency of lime on sugar, little remains to be stated on that point here. Indeed, the amount of lime as used in refineries is but small; the earth never being employed in substance, but always as lime water; hence the injurious agency of this alkaline earth is in a manner reduced to its practical minimum. Still, even under these circumstances, its ultimate destructive agency must be great, when it is considered that each successive syrup contains the lime, not only of its own operation, but of many preceding operations—modified only by the amount of lime removed (if any) by the bone black filtration process.

The employment of blood, although effecting a considerable mechanical separation of one set of impurities, and thus enabling the

liquor to pass rapidly through the filter bags,—nevertheless imparts not only red coloring matter, but also the peculiar odorous compound of the blood. The coloring matter, it is true, can be removed by animal charcoal,—but only, as must be evident, by diverting a certain amount of the efficacy of that substance from its more legitimate agency of removing the vegetable colouring matter of impure sugars. As to the odorous matter, it is never separated from the liquors to be evaporated, however bright they may be to the eye; and is only removed from the crystallized sugar by the processes of claying and liquoring,—which force it into the syrup,—and, lastly, into the treacle. Hence it is that the coloured refinery products—pieces and bastards—although somewhat like Muscovado sugar in appearance, possess a most offensive smell. The coloured sugars resulting from a refinery process, where no blood is used, cannot be distinguished from real Muscovado sugars—the best proof of the assertion that the peculiar smell of the two former is due to the odorous matter of blood. Another very strong proof of the presence of this odorous matter consists in the fact, that the condensed vacuum pan steam evolves a peculiarly nauseous smell of perspiration. The perspiratory fluid of animals is well known to be elaborated from their blood; and, taking advantage of this fact, a celebrated writer on forensic medicine* has proposed to distinguish medico legally between the blood of brutes and the blood of man, by treating the suspected blood with sulphuric acid, when the peculiar perspiratory smell of the animal will be evolved.

The accumulation of sweet waters arising from the various washings to which the charcoal must be subjected, is a very serious inconvenience, which is much felt now that the effective bulk of bone black has been so greatly increased beyond the *few inches* mentioned by Derosne, the patentee.

If these washings accumulate faster than the necessities for water in the future operations of blowing up,—the inconvenience—not to say positive loss—to the sugar refiner, will be great indeed.

The effect of in and in working, as producing a cumulative amount of destruction, has already been so fully enlarged upon, that it need not be further adverted to—and a similar remark applies to the injurious agency of scum liquor.

It now merely remains for me to add, that the process of employing sulphurous acid as a precipitant for lead—used as a defecator—is equally good for refinery, as for colonial operations; as I have proved most rigorously, both on the small scale and the large.

In conclusion, I beg here to thank the various gentlemen, far too numerous to mention, who have aided me in my investigations on sugars for the last eighteen months.

To Messrs. Evans, Thwaites & Co., refiners, of Cork, my acknowledgments are particularly due for the very prompt and liberal manner in which they responded to my application for leave to try the efficacy of my process in their house. The various experiments con-

* Barruel.

ducted on the small scale in a laboratory, built by them for the occasion, having led to a successful trial on the large scale with most satisfactory results,—their house has now been specially altered for the purpose of adapting it to the genius of the new process.*

ART. III.—FLORIDA.

INTERCOMMUNICATION—CLIMATE—COASTS—EVERGLADES—PRODUCTIONS—TROPICAL FRUITS—SUGAR LANDS, AS COMPARED WITH LOUISIANA—TIMBER—GENERAL ADVANTAGES, ETC., ETC.

We have, on many occasions, throughout our first nine volumes, introduced particulars relating to Florida, in reference to its history, productions and prospects, but it has never been our good luck to meet with anything so full, minute and reliable upon this subject, as the paper we are now permitted to present to our readers, and which is the joint production of several gentlemen of that state, at the head of whom are John P. Baldwin and G. W. Ferguson, Esqs. The facts have been carefully collected and embodied, for public purposes, and too much credit cannot be awarded for the successful manner in which it has been done.

No one can examine the position of Florida upon the map, without being convinced that her high career has been unnaturally interrupted, and that her citizens have only to be true to themselves to remove the impediments to her rapid improvement and wealth.

The prospects now daily brightening of a rail-road connection across the peninsula of Florida, of the Atlantic and the Gulf, so interesting to the whole south-west, and the constant calls made upon us for information in reference to Florida, are calculated to enhance very much the value of the present paper.

We suggest again to the citizens of Texas and Arkansas the importance of furnishing us with similar evidences of the condition and progress of these states, believing that nothing will so much promote their progress in population and wealth as the dissemination of full and reliable information.—[Ed.

The greatest drawback now existing to the more rapid settlement of this interesting portion of our state, is to be found in the want of facilities for more speedy and ready communication with other states and with other parts of the state; and it is suggested to our citizens of the seaboard, that the establishment of steamboat routes on either shore, from Jacksonville to Pensacola, is what the prosperity of all the small settlements on the bays and rivers loudly call for. Many intermediate routes could be made profitable at once, and with the ne-

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* Since the period when the above was printed, my coadjutors have become far too numerous for special acknowledgment. I must not, however, omit the name of Messrs. Shears, of Bankside, who have fitted up a model house on their premises for demonstrating the new operation, and to whom I am indebted for many valuable suggestions as regards the mechanism of my process.

cessary business which must follow the establishment of such a communication, connected with a contract for carrying the United States mails, there would appear to be sufficient inducement for some enterprising citizen, or citizens, to embark capital in what the wants of the people and the general good, so eminently call for. A route from Miami, in Dade County, to Key-West, and thence to Charlotte Harbor, Tampa, Cedar Keys, St. Marks and Apalachicola, is suggested as one that would prove a source of profit to a small steamer of light draft of water; whilst the stimulant thereby given to business and immigration would, no doubt, be very great.

In treating of a region of which the geography and peculiar local features are so little known, would not the public interests be subserved by taking a somewhat wider range than originally contemplated, and exhibit some of the opportunities for enterprise in connection with its numerous waterfalls, bays, towns and cities, steamboat routes, &c.; it being obvious that a region so little in contact with the emigration and travel of the country, must necessarily remain comparatively a sealed book, unless some little effort is made to unfold its pages.

The climate of South Florida may be at once set down as the most desirable winter climate in the United States, presenting to the invalid of the north, a desirable retreat from the rude blasts peculiar to that region. The Miami, on Key Biscayne Bay and Key West, may be considered as most desirable points for establishing the necessary facilities for the encouragement of visitors of that class, numbers of whom annually go on to Cuba, and other West India Islands, but who would be induced to stop in Florida, were there proper accommodations. No places possess greater advantages for fishing, boating, &c., than those mentioned. At Miami, on Key Biscayne Bay, has been stationed, during the past eighteen months, a company of United States troops, and it has been a matter of surprise to the surgeon, that he has had no case of sickness among the soldiers during all that time. The inhabitants, some of whom have resided there for many years, are all grateful witnesses of the remarkable healthfulness of that vicinity; and although the summers are warm, the air, during the entire day, is fanned by the easterly winds prevailing in that season, and rendering it comfortable for the laborers to pursue their vocations at all times. The writer would here remark, that this class of men, of whom he employs many, are universally more healthy and robust than in any other region he has any acquaintance with. This, in connection with other and peculiar advantages, make it emphatically the home of the man of slender means and enterprising disposition.

Dade County, stretching along the Atlantic seaboard, between lat. 25 and 26 degrees, possesses an excellent harbor for vessels drawing nine feet water, with a light-house at its entrance, on Cape Florida, marking the channel into the bay, (Key Biscayne,) which extends for a distance of thirty miles in a northerly and southerly direction. Numerous streams discharge into it from the Everglades, on all of which is water-power, controlled generally at no great ex-

pense, with a fall of about five feet, which may be employed for Arrow Root or Lumber Mills. The necessary supplies for running either, are to be found directly on the banks of the streams. The land on the west side of the bay is gently elevated, commanding a delightful view in many places. An opening directly through the Keys to the Gulf, enables vessels to be seen in their course, north or south. These points are desirable places for building, and in the immediate vicinity is found a spontaneous growth of Arrow Root, inviting the man of enterprize to avail himself of the water-power so abundant, or of a small steam engine or horse-power, with which he may, with little difficulty or expense, prepare for market an article yielding one hundred dollars to the acre. This may create a sensation of doubt in the minds of some, and may suggest the inquiry, if such be the case, why has it so long remained unknown, and the country comparatively unoccupied? To this the writer will attempt no reply, further than to allude to the neighborhood of that curse of Florida, the Seminole Indians, and that Dade County has been the scene of bloody encounter and massacre.

The southern portion of this county comprises numerous Keys, stretching along the Florida Reefs, and terminating at Tortugas, in Monroe County; and it may not be amiss here to remark, that the reservation of these Keys by the general government is calculated greatly to retard the growth of that portion of our state. They should be open to settlement, and be subject to pre-emption claims as all other public lands, and soon a hardy, enterprising people will occupy them, producing plants peculiarly adapted to their light, vegetable soil. Those plants are clearly pointed out by nature's unerring hand, wherever the original growth is cleared away, by the spontaneous growth of the Bird Pepper and the Gherkin in the greatest profusion, both extensively in demand for pickling. On these Keys alone may be raised a sufficient quantity to supply our entire home market, for which large quantities are annually imported from Africa, South America, &c. They are in bearing the entire year, and yield a perpetual harvest.

The Palma Christy, the plant from which Castor Oil is made, peculiarly adapted to this kind of soil and climate, grows continuously for about four years, and becomes a large tree, in constant bearing, ripening its rich clusters of beans in such profusion, that from some experiments made by the writer, he is satisfied that one hundred bushels may be made annually from an acre, and their product of oil two gallons per bushel. An enterprising citizen of Key West is about to establish machinery for engaging in the business, and it may be safely predicted that Castor Oil will become an important staple product of South Florida, its climate securing to the cultivator so great an advantage over regions where the plant is merely an annual.

The Sisal Hemp plant is growing throughout these counties, and is natural to the whole southern part of the Peninsula. With the aid of labor-saving machinery, in dressing out the fibre, and manu-

facturing the hemp, there is no doubt it could be made a profitable pursuit, even in competition with the native labor of Mexico.

The Florida Keys furnish an immense field for the manufacture of that great necessary of life, salt—which is now made upon a large scale by an estimable citizen of Key West, superior in quality to Turk's Island. The plan of evaporation is by solar heat, in large basins, from whence it is pumped by wind-mills into elevated vats, with temporary covers, where it is granulated, and made ready for market. Large quantities are annually shipped from Key West to New-Orleans and other southern markets, where a constant demand exists for all that is made, and at a price that has enabled the proprietor to establish it as a permanent business, that may be largely extended. Many of the Keys in the vicinity present the same advantages as the one referred to, and with the necessary capital, any man of enterprise and perseverance would here find a chance for investment that could not fail of securing a just reward for his efforts, while to the state the results are of immense importance, in view of the great consumption of an article which may be produced to an extent so unlimited within our borders.

The entire region of pine woods, from Cape Sable to near Indian River, presents a bountiful growth of Compty, the root from which the Arrow Root is made, and it may be claimed that its importance to the state of Florida is second to no other plant adapted to her soil and climate. One of its peculiar characteristics is that of reproduction, without care of planting, as the scattered seeds and the parts of roots left in the earth in the process of digging, shoot forth, and in two years, without any care, present a more bountiful growth than the original. Doubtless the quality and amount of the roots would be improved by cultivation, and as the plant is susceptible of introduction into all the pine lands south of twenty-eight, and perhaps thirty degrees, experiments are recommended, with the view to extend and secure to Florida, at the earliest day, the great advantages promised by the growth of this plant. It is proposed to forward to the Agricultural Board at Tallahassee, for distribution, a sufficient quantity of seed, that each of the middle and southern counties may make the trial, and in the month of April they may be expected, when they may be planted at any period of the summer. The manufacture of Arrow Root at Miami has now become an established business, yielding to the conductor, with the aid of necessary machinery, three dollars per day as the result of each man's labor, with a ready market for all that is made; and as the production and consumption has greatly increased during the past year, we hazard nothing in predicting that they will continue to do so, until this shall become one of the most important products of the state. Its quality as starch is well ascertained to be superior to that produced from either wheat, corn, or potatoes, vast quantities of all of which are yearly consumed in the manufacture of that necessary article; and when it shall become known that an acre of our poor pine land will produce as much starch from this plant as can be obtained from a similar surface from either wheat, corn, or potatoes,

the growth of the best lands of the north, it will be clearly seen that capital and labor must always find a certain and profitable investment in this branch of industry so peculiar to our climate.

In connection with this portion of the Peninsula, the important fact should not be overlooked, that a large portion of the Everglades are within its border; and as that extensive region of swamp land is now the property of the state, it is confidently hoped that measures will soon be taken to redeem from overflow so valuable a portion of tropical territory; and the writer would here remark, that an extensive observation of that region during a long residence at Miami, has convinced him of the perfect feasibility of the project, and that it is only a question of time and money. The Everglade region is of vast importance to our state, covering as it does an area of about one hundred and sixty miles long by sixty broad, and should be at once examined and surveyed with reference to draining. All former reports on that subject have been decidedly favorable; and in view of reclaiming so much tropical territory, early action is very desirable. The writer would suggest that deepening and enlarging the natural outlets, with the opening of some additional ones at favorable points, would, at no very large cost, as compared with the immense advantage, be the means of preventing any large accumulation of water, as the overflow is believed to be caused entirely by the rains; and so vast is the surface confined to almost a dead level, that the natural outlets are insufficient to drain it off.

Much valuable timber for ship-building and cabinet work is growing in South Carolina, such as live oak, dog-wood, &c., much of which is annually used at Key West, where many small vessels have been built during the past year. Mangrove is of an abundant growth, and furnishes excellent timber for constructing foundations in water for wharves and other structures, whilst the bark is an excellent substance for tanning leather, or for dyeing. Box-wood, mastic, satin-wood, crab-wood, and lignumvitæ, are all found in quantities throughout the keys and the southern part of the state generally.

Indigo, of spontaneous growth, is found throughout a large portion of the state, and is extensively manufactured and used in families, but there does not appear to have been any effort made to introduce it as an article of commerce. As the plant is peculiar to our pine-woods soil, its importance deserves some experiment, to ascertain if it may be profitably cultivated and manufactured. Will not some enterprising citizen give the subject the necessary attention?

The various tropical fruits are all adapted to this southern portion of Florida, and many of them can be made profitable for export:—such as the lime, guava, citron, lemon and cocoa-nut. The lime is now an abundant crop, and shipments of them to Charleston and Savannah have netted twenty dollars to the barrel. The product per acre may safely be estimated at thirty barrels. Preserves made from the three first-named fruits are always in demand, and may be prepared for market extensively. The pine-apple is successfully cultivated at Indian River and other places, but as it requires a peculiar soil, it is confined to certain localities. Many points of this region are adapted to the

plantain, banana, orange, &c., where future efforts, governed by experience and discretion, will doubtless cause them to become established products.

We would refer to the efforts and statements of a lamented citizen of Florida, murdered at Indian Key by the Seminoles, and who was rewarded by Congress for his zeal in introducing tropical plants. From his great skill and experience, he should be considered the best authority as to the future prospect of our state in the production of all these luxuries of life. From long observation, the writer is convinced, that while abundant opportunity exists for employment in producing some of the great staples of commerce, Nature, with a bountiful hand, has also provided a sufficiency of soil, from which to obtain all the necessaries requisite for the wants of the settlement. Gentlemen of worth, who have been long residents of Florida, are well aware that previous to the Indian war, by which our southern counties were depopulated, the sweet orange-tree was found in many of those counties: as Orange, St. Lucie, Dade, and Hillsborough, in vigorous growth, and bearing bountifully their peculiarly rich and luscious fruit. These trees were mostly destroyed during that memorable period; and the great uncertainty as to the safety of life and property, has since prevented much attention to that, or any other branch of cultivation. There is now, however, in progress of growth, several young and thrifty orange groves at Indian River, Tampa, Manatee, and other places, proving the soil and climate well adapted to the production of that most profitable, and always desirable luxury.

It is only requisite that citizens should enter the land, clear it, and plant their trees, keeping them clear of all other growth for a space of about six years, and they may enjoy a harvest as rich as a choice vein in California. But it will be asked, what will enable persons to live through these six years without capital? The answer is, that in none of these southern counties is there a spot where the spontaneous products of the earth and water do not afford a very comfortable livelihood, without what may be called labor in obtaining them; and we need not point out to the man of industry and enterprise, the advantage thus conferred, while he, with system and energy, applies himself to some of the various opportunities, holding forth a ready and profitable reward for his labor.

The banana, the plantain, and various other fruits, are being successfully cultivated at various points; and when we take into consideration the fact that the soil of South Florida is so various, presenting here a black vegetable mould, there a yellowish clay soil, and again light sandy loam, or clear sand, it will at once be seen, that where so large a portion of the surface remains untried, it is difficult to attach to separate localities of this great and extended field, the importance which they may justly claim. We will state, however, that where this luscious fruit, the banana, has succeeded best, at New River, Indian River, Miami, Key West, and other places, it has always been a deep, rich vegetable soil, not too dry; and in all such soils, in any county south of 28°, it will undoubtedly become a profitable article

of cultivation. In view of the large quantity of this fruit annually imported, it is recommended that more strenuous efforts be made to introduce and extend it wherever it may be done. Too rich a soil cannot be had, and cultivators should look well to manuring wherever there is any deficiency of strength in the soil. The Everglades, whenever drained, will furnish a large amount of soil adapted to the plant; and may we not confidently look forward to the period when so great a luxury shall be furnished to the neighboring cities from our own state?

Officers of the army, employed during the Indian war in the Everglades, report having visited a large island known as Sam Jones, on which was a large and beautiful growth of banana and cocoa-nuts, of the correctness of which there is no room for doubt; and may not this be taken as a test of the importance we should attach to that extensive region, now the property of Florida?

Cocoa-nuts are found to be adapted to nearly all our varieties of soil, and may be raised in the greatest abundance with the necessary care of planting. This article has been sadly overlooked, for the reason that the plant requires some nine years' growth before it yields any fruit. But this should never be considered as a reason why it should be neglected. Let every person who clears a piece of ground put into it a few of these valuable plants, and in a few years we shall find them important as a source of revenue to the state. Neighborhoods near the salt water are found most desirable for them, and in these locations they will soon, by the rapid unfolding of their elegant fan-like leaves, add beauty to the scene, and at the proper time, a never-failing, and almost never-ending source of profit will be the result.

In regard to the culture of sugar in South Florida, it is well known that the seasons are at least from four to six weeks longer than in the best sugar lands of Louisiana and Mississippi, which had been considered the best in the United States; but owing to the liability of frosts, it has been conceded that they lose at least one crop out of every four; for in what they consider a favorable season, they are compelled to commence grinding their cane early in October, and before the cane matures. In the counties of Levy, Hernando, Orange and Hillsborough, (to say nothing of the counties further south where the season is still later,) they do not commence grinding until the last part of November; and at the last season, the planters on the Manitee did not finish until the middle of February, giving them three months to gather their sugar crops in. A planter last year made on the Manitee, 30,000 lbs. of sugar from 10½ acres. The cane matures and tassels there every season, which is conclusive proof, that no other part of the United States possesses the same advantages for the culture of cane. There is beyond a doubt, in the counties of Levy, Hernando, Orange and Hillsborough, at least 170,000 acres of the best sugar lands in the United States, entirely uncultivated.

We feel that we have already made this communication of a somewhat lengthy character, yet we are constrained, in justice to two other branches of employment, in prosecution of which South Florida has

a large interest, to devote some further space to a cursory glance at their respective merits and advantages. The first is the great interest of cattle raising. Already has this branch become of great importance, and may be greatly extended, for which there is abundant range in the lower counties. In some of these counties there are no cattle at all, as in Dade, although the range is of the freshest kind during the entire year. A most desirable market for large numbers can be had at the Bahamas and West India Islands, and at Key West. The proximity of Miami (with an excellent harbor) to these places, would give a very great advantage in supplying those markets with beef, not only on account of the distance and expense, but the beef would be in much better condition than after the long passage now made from Tampa, Pensacola, New-Orleans, and other places, from which their supply is now obtained. We make the suggestion, in the hope that persons who now have large stocks in the northern part of the state and in Georgia, may profit thereby, as the price of cattle in those island markets may be estimated at twenty dollars per head for two year old steers, and thirty to forty dollars for those of three years and upwards. It is presumed that at the present session of the General Assembly, an appropriation will be made to open a road from Indian River to that point, when all the difficulties now existing will be removed, and cattle will doubtless soon be driven there; very many of which would find a ready sale to persons settled at that place, who are now entirely without any, owing to the great difficulty of penetrating the hammocks, and crossing the streams which intersect the entire region from the Miami to Hillsborough River.

In a country where the best of pine timber is growing in such abundance, and whose geographical features present such great advantages for transporting it to market, it would be superfluous for us to dwell upon its importance, as furnishing a ready and certain reward for the investment of capital and labor, either in converting it into lumber, or in the production of turpentine. It is remarked, with some degree of pride, that our state is exporting considerable lumber and turpentine; but where one is engaged in either of these branches of business, there should be at least twenty. There is ample room and scope for this increase; and with our ready access to the coast, this should be the greatest exporting state, for these two important articles of commerce, in the Union. There has never been devoted to these important branches of industry any thing like the attention they demand; and our state is still sadly in want of saw-mills throughout her length and breadth, save perhaps at one or two points, as at Pensacola and Jacksonville. With the abundant supply of timber, we hope soon to see enterprising men engage in reaping the harvest that is presented everywhere throughout South Florida, where there is not at this day, within our knowledge, a solitary saw-mill.

Turpentine-making is receiving some attention in the western part of the state, where its profits are so large as to draw off attention from the culture of cotton, even at present high prices; and when we consider the enormous consumption of rosin and turpentine, and the

large extent to which they may be produced in South Florida alone, we need only look to an accession of laborers in this productive field, for it to become a most valuable and important resource of the state.

We have made industrious researches after some authentic tabular statements in regard to the heat and cold of South Florida, and the only one within access is a series of observations made by the late Dr. Perrine, at Indian Key, during several years following 1830. At that place, in latitude about 25 degrees north, the average range of the thermometer, during a series of years, was found to be seventy-six degrees, and never descending to a freezing point. The entire region, embracing all south of latitude 28 degrees, may be claimed as entirely exempt from frost. Persons now living at Key West, Miami, Tampa, and other places, and who have been many years in Florida, have never known a sufficient degree of cold to injure the most delicate plants. With such mildness of climate, and a widely extended primitive soil, may we not expect, as we have certainly every reason for hope, that South Florida will soon become, what Providence in its wisdom seems so emphatically to have designed it to be, the Garden of America?

In glancing over this view of S. Florida, we are forced to one conviction, that with such great and important advantages of climate—such varieties of soil, covered with a spontaneous growth of products of greater value than many that are now being cultivated in other states—with her streams and bays abounding with every variety of fish and turtle—her forests enlivened by all the varieties of game common to the South;—with these and other advantages, we look to the future history of Florida with conscious pride, believing that her course is onward: and that it is only necessary that she arise in her youthful might, and put forth her energies, to show to the world, that within her borders exists that which will make her one of the brightest stars in the galaxy of states. Our citizens have only to employ the means with which they are abundantly provided, for the construction of rail-road and steam-boat routes within and around our borders, by which they will remove one of the great obstacles to immigration, and soon we shall find our promising state the recipient of a thrifty and prosperous people. Other states well understand the importance of creating facilities for travel; and knowing its influence in extending to thinly populated regions the benefits of emigration, have made it a prominent policy to encourage all such enterprises; and shall we not profit by their numerous examples? There is much capital now within our state that could be thus very profitably employed. And we would suggest a liberal policy towards the encouragement of all capitalists, who, with the laudable desire to shorten the route between our great northern cities and the Mexican Gulf, propose to construct rail-roads across our state for that object. The speedy accomplishment of such enterprises cannot but result greatly to the prosperity of our state.

ART. IV.—THE REGULATOR.—A TALE OF TEXAS.

PART II.—THE HISTORY OF THE "TEN-PENNY NAIL."

"All who joy would win,
Must share it: happiness was born a twin."

WITHIN hail of one of the pleasantest villages of Alabama, lived Major Otley, in a residence indicative of circumstances of ease and comfort upon the part of the owner. Major Otley was the father of Ellen, who became the wife of Col. Teadriver. He was a worldly-minded man, and a man of stern nature. Ellen was unlike her father in the traits of his disposition. She was as remarkable for gentleness as he was for sternness. As she grew to womanhood, she grew to be the general favorite. She was tall, graceful, with large black eyes and dark glossy ringlets. The two most matchless traits of her disposition were gentleness and gayety. These two qualities were like exhaustless wells of living water, springing up in her nature, and enriching, with their purifying influence, all who came within the circle of their magic charms. The common expression in the village was, that "Ellen was as cheerful as a cricket." Her gayety was the gayety of a trusting and unsuspecting heart; her gentleness was the offspring of pure affectionateness of disposition. These are rich treasures in themselves, but they are qualities which are apt to subject the possessor to the severest trials, in the actual approach and contest of life. They are often a melancholy boon in the sorrowing paths of life. Ellen was quite handsome, but it did not prevent her from seeing and admiring beauty in others. She was not possessed of those accomplishments which constitute the staple of the fashionable education of the day, but there were ample amends made up to her for the deficiency, in the healthful elements of her constitution, in which particular she resembled the English ladies, having been much in the open air, rather than those specimens of the elegant ladies of this country, who think that the air of nature was not made to visit their pallid cheeks. Her amiability she never lost, but her gayety, though severely tried, long withstood adverse circumstances, and at last measurably gave way, like the tender sapling, which the schoolboy uses to ensnare the rabbit, and which, by the too long use of it in the bent position, will finally lose its force and elasticity.

Among the neighbors of Major Otley was a gentleman of the old school, a village politician and a democrat. Notwithstanding the difference in the political creeds between the Major, who was a federalist, and his democratic neighbor, they were firm personal friends. He was a man of mild temper, afflicted with the asthma, and an intolerable talker. He was more voluble than the Major in his political displays, and out-talked, or rather talked him down by an unbroken flow of unappeasable volubility, but the asthma would prove the Major's friend; and he would reply, in a more calm and deliberate tone, and hit the harder blows in the caustic and withering sarcasms in which

he indulged, and which told heavily upon his democratic friend. Two seats were usually appropriated to them at the village grocery, the scene, upon a summer's day, of their political warfare. Here a crowd would usually collect to listen to the world of words of the one, and to the biting rejoinder of the unflinching Major. Thomas Jefferson and democracy were the unfailing themes of the one, and John Adams and a strong government the idols of the other. A spectator could hardly have imagined, while listening to the heated grocery controversy, in which the Major would indulge in the severest sarcasms at the inconsistency of the views, the levelling tendency of the doctrines, and at those weak points of private character, which Tom Moore has immortalized for posterity in undying verse, which the Major charged upon the Apostle of Liberty, whom his antagonist regarded with an admiration akin to idolatry, that anything like personal friendship could subsist between such bitter political controversialists. Such, however, was the fact. Away from the field of battle, and from the presence of spectators, the Major did justice to the mild and winning virtues of his democratic neighbor, and he, upon his part, never failed to recognize in the Major the possession of the stern virtues of the Roman. The Major's democratic friend was the father of two sons, and, besides, had received into his family the son of a distant connection, upon whom he bestowed the same care and external regard which he gave to his own children. He had him well educated, and furnished him with the means and opportunity to acquire the profession of the law. With this young gentleman some of our readers are acquainted. Carroll, for it was he, was gifted by nature with fine sense, but it was rendered useless to him, in consequence of his peculiar disposition. His disposition was affectionate, mild, timid, and yet his frame was stout and healthful. He was utterly incompetent to undergo the wear and tear, the conflict of mind and soul, which his profession demanded. He shrank from opposition, and instinctively avoided the shock and contest of the actual world. His disposition was meditative and retiring. He could not face his species in any effort which required firmness of purpose and resolute will. As a consequence, he failed at the bar, and saw others of much intellectual inferiority surpass him in the career of life. His intercourse and rearing in the family of his benefactor, had been of such a character as to encourage rather than dispel those unhappy blemishes of his nature. He had received there that amount of kindness which prevented the growth of those sullen and vindictive passions, that oppression and a sense of wrong will often lash into the mildest nature. This kindness, added to the circumstance of his isolated condition, was of that halting kind, which could not produce the development of that full confidence, and did not impart that freedom of heart, which will sometimes supply the defect of nature in this regard, but increased the disorder rather, by inducing him to encourage those gloomy and desponding moods which, alas! were but too congenial to the natural trait and bent of his character; and being thus deprived of that confidence belonging to security in the possession of the natural ties of life, he was like-

wise without that superadded quality, which oppression and the stern lessons of hard fortune will impart to a character deficient in resoluteness of purpose. It is not always the most benevolent act to remove the young, of either sex, out of their natural station in society. His shrinking timidity became the bane of his existence, and, like a discolored vein in a noble block of marble, will deface the choicest statue which the chisel of a Praxiteles could work out of it. It is by no means an unusual thing, that the mildest natures are often forced into the possession of a degree of desperate courage by adverse fortune, and a fierce conflict with life, for a hard existence that often makes them shining characters in the busy scenes of life. But then that adverse fortune and that forced conflict, must assume a point of intensity sufficient to banish all timidity and sense of inferiority. And this rarely happens to those who have been removed from a hard to a better, but to an unnatural position. There were too many of the elements of kindness hovering around him, to permit the growth in him of this fruit of a hard and chilled nature. Situated as he was with regard to the family of Major Otley, in consequence of the familiarity between his benefactor and the old federalist, he was never an unwelcome guest in the family circle. His mild, subdued and retiring manners, and his poor and orphanage condition, disarmed Major Otley of all care or apprehension.

Nothing, under the circumstances, was more natural in the world, than that an attachment should spring up between him and Ellen Otley. An attachment did spring up, of the most pure, disinterested and absorbing nature. Strange as it may seem, the sprightliness of her character accorded well with the philosophic gloominess of his. His still and quiet despondencies of nature found relief in the unfailing elasticity and hopefulness of hers. Her vivacity was in happy contrast with the subdued eloquence of his gentle and desponding words. They loved as people rarely love in this world. The quiet and easy tone of his character was well calculated to win a vivacious and gay girl, whose lively fancy did more than half the work, and *he* loved, admired, and indeed envied her happy nature; and he loved her because he was indeed beloved by this happy, holy, elevated and lovely woman, the only thing in the world, of any value in the world's eye, that did love him. What wonder that *he*, cast like a weed at sea, and meeting the solace of affection nowhere else in the world, should be penetrated with a tenderness for her that knew no bounds; for her who, like an angel from the upper spheres, had consented to be the "bright particular star" of his more than eastern idolatry, and thus more than repaying him in the priceless richness of the treasure of her affection, for the hard fate which bore so oppressively upon him in the world. This affection, deep and absorbing as it was, and notwithstanding its continuance for many months, and the lengthy correspondence to which it gave rise, was wholly unsuspected and undiscovered by the father of Ellen, until it had shot its roots into the nature of each, and to eradicate which was to cost a tearful and bitter agony. That discovery came, and with it came a crushing blow, as fell as the bolt of heaven. Fre-

quently during the existence of this sweet interlude in their lives, in which they gave reins to the indulgence of a deep and true affection, which those who haply feel have cause to thank heaven for a propitiousness of destiny happening to but few in this money-getting and money-loving world, and which ever remains an oasis in the heart when the waste of desolation reigns over the whole landscape of life, did the hopeful Ellen beseech her lover to make a candid and full disclosure to her father. Her lover knew better. "Why, Ellen dear," he would reply, "your father would do worse than kill me. He would forbid me his house. To be banished from this priceless privilege of seeing you, and hearing a voice that is sweeter to me than the melody of the spheres, and from that love which, in the hard and seared life I live, is the only consolation which ever visits me, how could I endure life? I would have to fly away to some distant land, and, like the good Job, 'rejoice exceedingly when I could find the grave.'—No, no; let us hope for better times." And thus it ran on in a smooth current of unfathomable joy to those happy lovers. It was too pure long to last. Her father intercepted one of Ellen's letters full of the eloquent words of affection. With a flushed and excited nature he exhibited it to his daughter, taxed her with the folly of madness, and placed his terms of indignant disapprobation upon it, in language which admitted of neither hope nor doubt. He left his daughter in an agony, sufficient to have moved a heart of adamant. The Major was as prompt to act as he was commonly slow to deliberate. He hunted up Carroll, and poured upon his head a torrent of unmeasured vituperation, under which the stoutest heart would have quailed. He accused him of the deepest duplicity and the basest ingratitude—that he had extended to him the common civility of permitting him, a poor and nameless orphan, with no ability to support himself, and with a dishonored name, for aught he knew, and which he strongly suspected—to visit his family, and that he had basely turned this license of an unreflecting kindness into the foul purpose of endeavoring to win the confidence of a foolish girl, and whom he was base enough to desire to inveigle into the same condition of poverty and degradation with himself, and from which he would never arise. "Now, young man," said the Major, in that concentrated tone of passion which is always eloquence, "if there is any virtue in your dishonored nature, there is but one way in which you can evince it, and avoid the consequences of an aroused indignation, the intensity of which you can form no conception of, and that is, by leaving this state immediately, with the promise never to return."

Carroll was made of too penetrable stuff to resist against a storm which seemed armed with destiny to *him*. He departed. He wandered in some of the adjoining states for many years, and, having a fine voice, taught music as a profession, which yielded him a precarious existence. Major Otley removed his daughter at once to the house of an aunt, who lived in a gay southern city. Her grief continued long, and was, at times, uncontrollable, and she pined away to a mere shadow; but the natural gayety of her disposition finally

came to her relief. To it she was indebted for her life, and for the returning love of it. With her returning love of life, she regained measurably her elasticity of spirits, but the sentiment of love for Carroll was never wholly eradicated.

About the time of the departure of Carroll, at the stern mandate of the indignant father, Col. Teadriver, then a young gentleman of shining manners and pleasing address, and independent estate, settled in the neighborhood of the village where Major Otley lived. The love affair between Carroll and Ellen had never become the subject of village gossip, as it would have been difficult to convince the public that Ellen Otley could ever have been induced to place her affections upon such a person as Carroll, and her family had taken pains not to let the secret escape. In process of time Ellen returned to her father's house. Her marriage with Col. Teadriver at length was much a match of her father's making. She yielded obedience to her father's urgent entreaties, with a submissive heart, satisfied that she was greatly beloved, and if she did not deeply love, resolved to make a kind and dutiful wife, if she could not make a loving one. The marriage was one of those marriages of convenience which has the blessings of friends, and the *promise* of happiness. She became the mother of a daughter, who was called Ellen, after her mother, and this was the only child they ever had, and was, as stated, the idol of her father. While little Ellen was yet quite young, pecuniary embarrassments overtook Col. Teadriver, and stripped him of the largest portion of his fortune, and the remainder was held by so precarious a tenure, that he conceived it to be more prudent to remove into the then colony of Texas. Here he secured valuable lands, and was soon well to do in the world. He had resided here a few years, and had distinguished himself in the struggle in which the colony was then engaged, in obtaining from the hard rule of a distant authority some semblance of popular institutions. Upon a pleasant summer evening in the month of May, there arrived in the town, near which the Col. lived, a gentleman of pleasing and quiet manners, who professed to be a music teacher. This was Carroll. The meeting between him and Ellen Teadriver was of the most exciting character. He contrived that the recognition should take place when they were alone. The old fires were quickly revived. Her affection for him now sprang from commiseration for his peculiar character, as an outlaw and wanderer in the world, in consequence of an unsubdued and undying love for her. Could woman be assailed on a tenderer point? She knew nothing of him, but as one who was stricken with a hopeless and remediless passion, of which she was the unhappy object. He represented it as a mill-stone around the neck of his enterprise. What was the world *without* her—what the rewards of the world unless for her? Their meetings were frequent and distressing. She loved from pity, and he from the unchastened longings of his nature, for the only thing which, in the voyage of life, had ever bestowed upon him the rich offering of a pure and holy affection. Madness was in his idolatry, and hers was subdued into the absorbing hope to induce him to maintain the integrity of

his character, and to awake from his sleep of indifference to the rewards of resolute exertion in the game of life. Oh! the love of woman—it is a "lovely and a fearful thing." Their affection was indulged, because it was delightful to indulge it. The gushing and melting tenderness of it was not tinged with any hope, on his part, of any more intimate relation than then subsisted. There was an eternal gulf between them, and her high and holy nature impelled her at once to the full and resolute determination to maintain the integrity of her marital vows and strict fidelity to all the duties of her station.

The continuance of Carroll in the village was longer than he had a class in music to teach; he was spell-bound by the fascination of his love for Ellen, notwithstanding his repeated promises, and in her repeated solicitations to remove elsewhere, and elevate himself in the practice of the law. Ellen did not doubt but that he would soon distinguish himself, if he could be induced to make the necessary exertion. Alas! he was not even the man he was when she first knew him. His hard struggle with the world had had a prejudicial effect upon the inherent weaknesses of his character. He had become radically insincere. He had become a whining sycophant and time-server. He had grown to be intensely selfish. Soured with the world by his own want of success in it, growing out of the instability and want of firmness which he continually displayed, he had degenerated into a servile flatterer of all, from whom he could expect anything, and was a mere hanger-on in the world. He was without object in life, and, like a waif at sea, carried whithersoever the current of circumstances might drift him.

Ellen knew none of this; she was a martyr to her fancy. Her integrity of heart never suffered or was shaken, and the only item of defect in it was her love for him, which survived time, and grew under the weight of adverse circumstances in the full purity of a hopeless affection. She strove against it; the effort cost her a sea of silent tears. She prayed against it, but the heavens were brass to her entreaties. She suffered in spirits and she suffered in health. Her loss of spirits and her loss of health could not long escape the worldly eye of the Colonel. With him "once to be in doubt" *was not* "once to be resolved." The fidelity of a domestic, who was in the secret of their correspondence, gave way at the stern demands of the Colonel; and by her information he was frequently present at their meetings, when they were not aware of it, and read their letters. The more he saw of the affair, the more he became convinced of the purity of the character of his wife, and the harmlessness of the relation, apart from the galling conviction to him of the existence, upon her part, of a deep and pure affection. Two of the letters were in his possession, and among his papers at his death. They were as follows:—

"My dear E., I have made up my mind to go, and have as frequently abandoned it. Where shall I go, where can I go? The only charm which the world has for me is *here*. My soul refuses to obey the dictates of prudence. How can I go, when spell-bound by a tie, which the

God of nature has himself placed within my bosom, and which I know has no unholy taint in it, and which is as pure as the love which the holy of the earth entertain for the object of all human worship. Does the philosophy of the world condemn an affection like ours, springing uncontrollable from the depths of pure hearts; let us turn to a higher source for our consolation and reward.

'To the pure in heart, all things are pure.'

"If it were wrong, God would have heard your prayer, and given me relief. It cannot be wrong when we purpose nothing, when we desire nothing. My affection for you is the living element of my nature. It is the food of my life, and the breath of my soul. I cannot live without it. It has become part and parcel of my nature, and that nature must be dissolved into its original elements, before the impress of this feeling shall ever leave it. I cannot live without it, and for it I am willing to die. What charm has the world for me? What is its wealth but a demon in disguise, whose vocation it is to chill and petrify the higher emotions of exalted natures? What is fame to me, alone in the world, but a cheating sound? We are not without elevated examples in history. Poetry has enshrined those examples, and they have travelled down the stream of time for our comfort and consolation. But yet how vain are all words! If my staying distresses you, I ought not to stay. I have no right to inflict upon you any of the bitterness of my own wrung nature. I have no right to give indulgence to the honest emotions of my heart, if it brings distress to you. If it kill me, yet will I go. Here I utter the word—that word which the poet truly says 'makes us linger,' the word that is the death-knell to all the treasured hopes of my heart—farewell. But oh! cannot I see you once more? Yours, C."

How true it is, that man may "smile and smile, and be a villain!" The following was the reply:—

"My dear C.—We *must* part. There is no alternative left us but duty. Duty I owe to one who is now ignorant of our attachment, and upon whose ignorance depends my happiness. I cannot doubt the truth and purity of his affection, and am unwilling to subject him to such tests as would inevitably be the consequence of your remaining longer here. He may know it, and his knowledge would be the signal of our mutual destruction. Let me entreat you to this step, with all the earnestness and persuasion to which I have a right to appeal.

"If there indeed be, upon your part, a tithe of the purity of affection and self-sacrificing spirit which I feel within me, I do not permit myself to conceive it to be a hard task to submit to duty; and I hope I may be enabled to induce you to summon a like elevated sentiment, which I am sure cannot be a stranger to your bosom. My happiness and peace of mind demand your departure. How often have you promised me, at the eloquence of my tears and entreaties, and with a seeming sincerity, which I was but too eager to credit, that you would not prolong your stay. Why are you so desponding? Will not I rejoice if you succeed in life? Is that not worth your ambition? If you can give me real joy, the *only* joy which you now have it in your power to impart to me, will you not, my dear C., stifle the voice of a vain hope, make me happy in the only way in your power, by continuing the honorable profession of the law, and rise to distinction. Oh! how my heart would rejoice to see you a shining character in the honorable walks of life! You have talents—call ambition to your aid. You say life has no charm for you, unless I mingle

with it. Do not deceive yourself; you cannot rise to distinction without giving me unmixed delight. You cannot evince the high and elevated elements of your character, without imparting an ecstasy to me which no language can paint. Why throw away in vain and temporary pursuits an ability which was designed for higher things? No, my dear C., from the bottom of my heart, and with all the sincerity of which it is mistress, let me beseech you to go to some populous city, nerve yourself to honorable exertion, and rise in the world, as I know you can, as a marked and honorable man, and nightly as I lay my head upon my pillow, will utter a prayer to heaven, that you may have strength to support and sustain you. My prayer is, go—and *at once.*

Farewell. E."

This correspondence, and the conversations which he had heard, satisfied him that his wife was the innocent victim of her own misguided imagination; that her fancy had painted a very defective character, in its rainbow tints; one who was gifted with the singular eloquence and fascination of words, which not unfrequently mark the erring and forsaken sons of genius. That her high devotion was the delusive outshoot of an excited fancy, did not make the discovery less desolating to Col. Teadriver. If a stroke of thunder on a cloudless day—a familiar, but forcible image—had burst suddenly upon him, he could not have been more astounded. The foundation upon which his heart reposed had been violently, and without any premonitory warning, removed, and he stood a wretched and ruined man, without the hope of revenge, or the possibility of relief. It was one of those scathing strokes of Providence which are sometimes disclosed in this strange world, that makes, of the object of it, a spectacle of living wonder to himself. A black, and bitter, and repulsive future, unrelieved by any star of hope in the hemisphere in which it lowered, was before him. The consciousness of present despair was his companion. A man of indomitable courage—here it could afford no relief. A man of great self-reliance—here there was no consolation in it. A man of ambition, it was a vain hope here. A man of pride, it added to the bitterness of the sting. What could high elements of character do in this withering catastrophe? What could resentment do? It would have been as sensible to have been enraged because his heart palpitated irregularly—just as sensible to have been enraged because his pulsation was hurried. What could remove the fatal knowledge, which, like iron, had entered into his soul, and there rankled? He had shed blood—it had left no shudder behind. If he should shed blood and brave those compunctious visitings of conscience, which will come in such a case as unbidden companions, it would put the seal of death upon the deluded fancy of his wife. His only hope was that his wife would yet see as others saw—would awake from her dream. He determined, however, to let her know that he was not ignorant, and like the wayward children, took the following plan:—Having in his hand a tenpenny nail, which he was in the habit of using upon his new place, he approached her when she was alone, and thus addressed her:—" Ellen, I am satisfied of one thing. I have made up my mind to an act that

ought not to cost me a moment's regret. There is a man in town whom I do not doubt to be an unmitigated villain. Great parted creation! This shall be the instrument of my vengeance," showing it to her, while his voice and manner indicated the most intense excitement, which he in vain endeavored to conceal under an assumed calmness of exterior, "this I mean to drive into his brain, inch by inch. I shall take occasion so to do it, as that I can see, as it shall slowly penetrate to the seat of life, the images of guilt and despair, as they shall disclose themselves upon his dying face. He has wronged me, and this shall be my revenge." He leaned over and hissed the loathed name into her ears. She uttered no word, and she made no cry. She cast a startled and hurried glance upon his face. It was enough—without a shudder or a groan she fell in speechless stupefaction at his feet. *And there he let her lie.* Quick as thought, and with the remembrance of his daughter at his heart, he stepped to the door, closed it, and turned the lock, and let the curtains fall at the windows. He deliberately took a chair, drew it near her person in inanimate prostration, and sat down near her side. Here he remained a moment, and a heavy sigh, as though his strong nature would rend apart, burst from him. He then slowly uttered, "poor fool, poor fool." And the fullness of his desolation came vividly over him, scorching and searing for the time all human ties and all human emotion.

As the Colonel was a singular man, the reader must not be surprised if the soliloquy which we are about to give over the person of his inanimate wife, should partake of this trait of his character. We must premise that the Colonel, being a military personage, had some singular antipathies. He detested a red-head and a music-master. He began, "Great parted creation!—a victim to a red-head and a music-teacher! My God, was the like ever known? The mystery to me is, that she should love that whining wretch! such a base, perfidious, smooth, dissembling, hypocritical villain—one who could violate the sanctity of the hospitable hearth, to which he was invited as a reputed man of honor, and there to whisper the poison of his guilty admiration into the guileless ears of this poor fool, consecrated by the ties of the altar! Meeting me in the accustomed walks of life, with the smile and the ready lie, and carrying on his game of deceit to my undoing! '*Peril of devils,*' we shall be yet equal. Could the curse of ruined happiness and peace *here*, expedite the blow which Heaven is sure to send upon the head of one so void of honor, his heart would at once fester in despair and remorse. How pleasantly did this villain, in the early stage of the wooing of the wife of another, and the mother of my sweet Ellen, who has just budded into womanhood, seem to sail along with the evident absence of all manliness, all trace of honorable feeling—any discoverable germ of virtue. "Do the pages of history," and here the Colonel's mind took one of its singular turns, "or the realms of poetry, disclose a case of such success in a red-head, and a music-teacher? And then the dark infamy of the remorseless wretch, to seek to prostitute the pure word of God to the purpose of the villain, by the

construction put upon the words, that 'to the pure, all things were pure,' and which he too well knew to be falser than hell." Here his wife began to show signs of returning animation. "This wretch," continued the Colonel, "this red-headed wretch, this music-teacher, who was false to all domestic honor, who could creep from lowness itself into the confidence of the elevated, and who dared to plead temptation, as though that did not heighten the blackness!" Here his wife was fully revived—reason assumed her throne. The Colonel sat motionless. She rose, she threw herself wildly upon his breast—she clung to him madly—she seized and held him in the spasm of despair and alarm; and then, "Oh, my husband, my husband!" and in an agony of remorse, besought, not so much his forgiveness, as his belief of her purity. "Look in my face, search my heart, I am true"—and thus she ran on in that touching eloquence which a woman can only use in such circumstances. During all this passionate outlay of womanly grief and eloquence, the countenance of the Colonel indicated mute despair. Finally his own deep love for his wife, the peculiarity of her situation, his certain knowledge of the purity of her character, and the weight of accumulated sorrows he had met with in the world, and now this unmeasured anguish, quite unmanned him, and the eccentric and stern Colonel Teadriver dissolved into a flood of tears, the first time for thirty years, and in this flow of bitter grief found comparative relief. But nothing could ever cure the desolation that was at his heart. When this truly distressing scene was over, the Colonel walked up into town with no very benignant purposes. But the bird had flown; Mr. Music Teacher had taken the hint. He was gone, and no one knew whither. The Colonel did not pursue him. In process of time, the Colonel regained a portion of domestic happiness: his wife was so devoted, so uncomplaining, so submissive, so watchful of his comfort, and so solicitous for his happiness. But he had received a blow from which his nature never recovered; and as his gayety left him, his fondness for quaint sayings also departed, until he became a man of the common mould. The tenpenny nail he ever kept with him, and was in his pocket when he was killed. Whenever he wished to suppress any occasional exuberance of animal spirits, or any improper wish of his wife, he would slightly, and in a casual manner, exhibit, or motion to it. It never failed to have its effect. Oh! often, often have the silent tears of joy coursed each other down the cheeks of his wife, to know as she did that this small token of her error gave the Colonel some chance of repaying the wrong she had done him; and such was the meekness and gentleness of her character, and such was her desire that he might derive all the consolation it was calculated to administer, that she never failed to evince the necessary compliance and submission of character which it seemed to demand—glad, unspeakably glad, to render even this much, by way of retribution, for her thoughtless and unconscious error; and it thus proved a memento of her husband's forgiveness, and the test of her submission.

The Colonel saw nothing more of Carroll for several years, until

he saw him in the hands of his committees. At the moment of the recognition, the Colonel turned and walked away, and muttered to himself, "My lark, I will let you pass through the sieve of my committees, as my friend the one-eyed lawyer facetiously remarked." With that story the reader is acquainted. The history of the Colonel's daughter may next amuse the reader.

IBREDIX.

ART. V.—THE STATE OF MISSISSIPPI.

WAR OF THE NATCHEZ—CHICKASAW WARS—DEFEAT OF BIENVILLE—EARLY HISTORY.*

In the first number of this compendious history, we reached the period when Loubois, having driven the Natchez tribe from the eastern shores of the Mississippi River, and having also erected and garrisoned a new fort at Natchez, returned to New-Orleans with the rescued captives, to make fresh preparations for the pursuit and extermination of the fugitive savages. The further prosecution of the war was delayed till the arrival of reinforcements from France. In the meantime the French succeeded in forming alliances with several powerful tribes of Indians inhabiting the south, as well as the Illinois and Wabash regions.

The Natchez, expecting an invasion, fortified themselves, with great skill, at a point on Black River, below the confluence of the Ouachita and Little rivers, near the spot where the town of Trinity now stands.

M. Perrier, by whom the war was to be conducted, having organized all the effective force of the colony, which, (inclusive of a reinforcement of 180 soldiers from France,) did not exceed one thousand men—commenced his campaign. Leaving about 200 men to defend the colony at home, he embarked at New-Orleans, and ascended to Black River, with an army numbering little over 700 men. On the 20th of January he came in sight of the stronghold of the enemy, where the "Suns" had resolved on a desperate defence. On his way to the fort, the French general had been reinforced by about 350 Indian allies, who proved to be of invaluable service in the battle which ensued.

The besieged made valorous resistance for the space of three days, when, M. Perrier having brought up his artillery, they hoisted a flag-of-truce. After fruitless negotiations, which consumed many hours, the French commenced, and kept up a furious cannonade on the fort, until a sudden tempest interrupted their fire. The Natchez availed themselves of the storm and darkness, to retreat into the neighboring swamps, but the Indian allies were sent in pursuit of them, while the French stormed the entrenchments. The former succeeded in capturing 427 of the Natchez—and with these prisoners, the French

* Part II. Continued from February Number.

general, having razed the outworks of the fort, and dismissed his allies, returned in triumph to New-Orleans. The prisoners, among whom were the "Great Sun," and other chiefs, were soon afterwards sent to St. Domingo, and sold as slaves.

But this formidable tribe, though routed, were not yet conquered. One-half of their original number yet remained free and dispersed in various quarters. Two hundred of them, having united near Nachitoches, then commanded by St. Denys, an officer of talent and experience—resolved on attacking and exterminating the whites at this post. But St. Denys adopted timely measures of defence, and having secured the aid of several friendly tribes, succeeded, after a hard-fought battle, in repulsing them. Following up this advantage, he pursued them to a neighboring fort, to which they had retreated, and gallantly assaulted them, killed 92 braves, and routed and dispersed the remainder. This was the closing scene of the "Natchez War"—and the scattered remnant of this once powerful and warlike tribe incorporated themselves with the Chickasaw, and other tribes hostile to the French. Into those tribes they infused their own ferocity and hatred, as will be perceived hereafter, and succeeded in rekindling the fires which the French vainly supposed had been quenched in the blood of the Natchez.*

The colony of Louisiana, though victorious, was much enfeebled by the frequent drafts which the war had created on their wealth and population, and rejoiced in the return of peace. The war had diminished their intercourse and trade with the Indian posts, and thus withdrawn one main source of their prosperity. But one permanent benefit resulted from this, inasmuch as it induced the "Western Company," which had hitherto monopolized this profitable trade, to surrender their charter—and gave the King of France an opportunity, of which he immediately availed himself, of conferring on all his subjects equal privileges, as to commerce, within the province of Louisiana.

Under the new organization of the government, M. Perrier was commandant-general. Loubois, who distinguished himself at Fort Rosalie, was made lieutenant for Louisiana; and D'Artaguette, who had acquired reputation in the Black River expedition, was made lieutenant for the Illinois country.

The population of the whole colony now exceeded 5,000 souls, of which 2,000 were slaves. The settlements were rapidly extending along the fertile shores of the Mississippi, Red, Arkansas, Ouachita, Illinois and Wabash rivers. Above New-Orleans the coast was lined with cottages, and large plantations had been established at Manchac, Baton Rouge, Point Coupee, and other remote points—and at Natchez, settlements had extended along St. Catharine's and Second Creek.

Thus situated, in 1733 the colony of Louisiana was ready for a new career of prosperity—free from the restrictions of commerce, which had hitherto retarded their advancement—with a civil govern-

* Some of the Natchez were seen at the city of Natchez in 1782,—50 years after the Natchez massacre.

ment well organized, and religious instruction amply supplied by the vicar of New-Orleans, which then belonged to the diocese of Quebec.

But these gleams of prosperity were soon obscured by the "Chickasaw war." After having read the foregoing pages, it would naturally be concluded, that the colonists would not again engage in war, without urgent necessity; but let it be remembered, that all wars between European emigrants and the aborigines of America, have resulted from the perfidy, violence and oppression of the former, who seem to have adopted the decision of Cyrus, as related by Zenophon, that the big boy, who had a very small coat, had a right to compel the little boy, who had a very large one, to exchange with him.

The Indians very naturally considered this regard to the mere "fitness of things," as being by no means a correct rule of justice. If the numbers of the white men in the old world required additional domain, the red man's occupation as a hunter required extensive wilds remote from civilization. The interests, as well as the habits, of the two races, were therefore equally antagonistic. Every additional mile settled by the white man, was equivalent to a spoliation of ten miles of the Indians' hunting grounds.

For a long time the Chickasaw tribe had been hostile to the French, and, as has been already related, had incorporated with their nation the refugees of the Natchez tribe, which act was itself a defiance of the French. They had frequently, at former periods, instigated small tribes to incursions upon the white settlements; and influenced by English emissaries, had entirely excluded French traders from their borders. They also committed frequent hostilities upon the *voyageurs* between Mobile and the Illinois settlements, until the year 1729. About this time, they commenced urging the league and conspiracy, which eventuated in the Natchez massacre. After the defeat of the Natchez tribe, the refugees, who joined the Chickasaws, succeeded in persuading the latter to open hostilities against the French, and renewed the depredations, which, for a time, had been suspended, upon the French commerce. In consequence of these acts, the river trade was virtually suspended, and the colonies kept in continual alarm.

Under these circumstances, in 1734, Bienville returned from France, bearing a fresh commission from the King, as Governor and Commandant-General of Louisiana. His name had once been terrible to the savages, and he doubted not it would now frighten them into subjection. But, on demanding the surrender of the Natchez refugees, he received only a bold refusal. He instantly determined to chastise the insolence of the savages. With this view, he commenced levying troops upon the upper and lower Mississippi, and at Mobile, and formed an alliance with the Choctaws, who agreed to meet him with a large body of warriors, at Fort Tombigby, on the river of that name. D'Artaguette, commandant at Fort Chartres, was ordered to march his whole disposable force to the Chickasaw nation, across the country, from Chickasaw Bluff, to which point he was to descend the Mississippi from Illinois, and to join the grand army under Bienville, who had resolved to ascend

the Tombigby River to its upper fork, with stores of artillery, and thence to march to the head waters of the Tallahatchy, at which point he expected to find D'Artaguette. The 10th of May, 1736, was the day fixed for the meeting of the two divisions of the army.

Bienville reached Fort Tombigby on the 14th of April, 1736, and was there immediately joined by 600 Choctaw warriors, and six days afterwards by 600 more; making 1200 auxiliaries.

Unavoidable delays prevented Bienville from leaving Fort Tombigby till the 4th day of May, only six days before that fixed for the junction of the grand army with D'Artaguette's division. To reach the designated point of junction required twenty days—thus making the arrival of one of the divisions without the other almost certain, and exposing each to the danger of being cut off from the other, and destroyed separately.

They at length reached the point of the river, about twenty-seven miles from the nearest Chickasaw town,and debarking,erected a stockade for the protection of the sick, and of the stores and artillery. This done, Bienville marched in quest of the enemy, and on the 25th of May encamped in view of their stronghold. The next day the Choctaws attempted to surprise the enemy, but were repulsed. At noon the French advanced, and in two desperate assaults, were repulsed by the deadly fire from the fort. The battle raged for four hours, during which many of the French were killed and wounded. Bienville, seeing the British flag waving over the ramparts, and despairing of success without artillery, drew off his forces in excellent order, leaving four officers and thirty-two men dead, and sixty wounded, on the spot where they fell.

Next morning the bodies of the French, killed and wounded, were discovered already quartered and impaled on the stockades of the fort.

At a league's distance from the enemy, Bienville now entrenched himself, overwhelmed with chagrin, and having received no tidings respecting D'Artaguette's division, he resolved to abandon his enterprise, and return to New-Orleans. On the 29th May, he broke up his camp, and next day reached the point, at the head of the Tombigby, where he had deposited his stores; and on the 31st, having dismissed his Choctaw warriors, he threw his cannon into the river,* and, floating down the river with his army, reached Fort Conde in safety. About the last of June he returned to New-Orleans, shorn of his glory, and covered with shame.

Alas! were this but all! But unhappily the brave D'Artaguette, accompanied by the red warriors of the North, from the shores of Lake Michigan and the Wabash, had descended the Mississippi to the Chickasaw bluff; and traversing the country east, had reached unobserved the Chickasaw country, and on the evening before the 10th of May, encamped near the place of rendezvous. Here, in sight of the

* Several years since, an Indian tradition was verified by the discovery, at the very spot of Bienville's debarkation of the cannon and lead, which were thrown overboard by the unfortunate commander. An old man, named M'Gilvery, had frequently stated that those silent witnesses of ancient tradition lay buried there, but without credence, till accident led to their discovery.

enemy, with his lieutenants, Vincennes and Voisin, and the Jesuit, Senat, he sought for intelligence respecting Bienville. But on the 20th of May, his Indian allies, eager for the fray, and impatient of restraint, forced him to lead them on to the attack.

The Chickasaws retreated before his well-conducted assault from the first fort and town, to a second town, from which they also retreated to a third town, in assaulting which D'Artaguette received two wounds which disabled him, and he fell. Dismayed by this misfortune, the red men of Illinois precipitately fled. Voisin, though only sixteen years old, conducted the retreat, forcing his men to carry with them such of the wounded as could bear removal. D'Artaguette remained where he fell, weltering in his blood, and his faithful friend Senat and his lieutenant Vincennes, voluntarily remained to receive the last sigh of the wounded, or share their captivity.

D'Artaguette and his companions were treated kindly by the Indians. Their wounds were dressed, and they were assiduously nursed by their captors, who were influenced by the hope of obtaining a great ransom from Bienville, who was known to be then advancing to their country. But the retreat of Bienville having destroyed this hope, the Chickasaws resolved to sacrifice their hapless captives to their savage revenge. They were taken to a neighboring field, and there, with the exception of one, who was left to relate the tragedy to his countrymen, the prisoners were tortured before slow fires till death ended their agonies. At this time, Bienville, ignorant of D'Artaguette's unhappy fate, and, doubtless, chiding him for delay, was ingloriously flying from the strife, for which he had been so impatient.

Not till his arrival at New-Orleans did Bienville learn the fate of D'Artaguette and his comrades. Must not his suspicions of D'Artaguette's fidelity, if he entertained any, have been converted into self-reproaches, for having, by his own want of energy, been instrumental in bringing about such a deplorable catastrophe?

To retrieve his late disgrace, Bienville determined on an expedition from the North, with a grand army, by the route which D'Artaguette had pursued against the Chickasaws, which, on being submitted to the minister, was approved. The spring of 1739 was the time appointed for this invasion, and directions were given and preparations made accordingly. In the meantime, the Chickasaws had sent runners to their English friends, with numerous presents, consisting of the spoils of victory, to inform them of their triumph, and solicit an alliance with them.

About the last of May, 1739, Bienville, with his army drawn from Mobile and the settlements contiguous to the lower Mississippi, embarked in boats and barges at New-Orleans, and slowly ascended the Mississippi River to the mouth of the St. Francis, at which point he was joined by La Buissoniere with the Illinois division. Bienville's whole army now amounted to twelve hundred whites, and nearly twenty-five hundred Indians, making thirty-seven hundred fighting men. Crossing the river, the army erected a fort (called Assumption) as a depot. It was now the middle of August, and sickness began

to ravage the army fearfully. Winter came, and disease disappeared only to make room for famine. The invasion, therefore, was delayed till the arrival of supplies from New-Orleans. Thus the march was delayed till March, 1740, when not more than two hundred effective men could be mustered into line besides the Indians. With these M. Celeron was sent against the enemy, with instructions to treat for peace. The Chickasaws, supposing them to be the whole French army, upon their approach sued for peace, and M. Celeron immediately entered into a treaty of amity and peace with them. A deputation of Chickasaw chiefs and warriors accompanied him to "Assumption," where Bienville ratified the treaty which M. Celeron had stipulated. The fort was dismantled—the French army re-crossed the river; and Bienville, having there discharged his northern allies, again floated ingloriously back to New-Orleans, sunk lower than before in military reputation. Here closed his career. He had been an able commander, and had gained laurels, but age had disqualified him for the arduous task of tracking and conquering in their native forests the warlike savages, who had, several centuries before, boldly resisted the mail-clad warriors of old Spain under the chivalrous De Soto, and who were now aided by the wealth and the counsel of their English allies.

In the following spring Bienville was superseded by the Marquis de Vaudreuil, who was appointed Governor and Commandant-General of Louisiana. Bienville had for nearly forty years controlled the affairs of the colony, but now retired under a cloud of censure, and the disapprobation of his hitherto confiding sovereign.

About this time cotton was introduced into Louisiana, but was cultivated in small quantities.

Notwithstanding the military reverses of Louisiana, the settlements had extended along the lower Mississippi, and population and wealth increased. The tropical fruits, and varieties of the potato, had been introduced—the last affording sustenance to the colonists, and the former supplying them with luxuries, while they also adorned their homes with perennial verdure, unknown in less genial climes.

For ten years Louisiana remained free from Indian hostilities; but in 1752, the English had introduced vast quantities of British goods and commodities of English trade among the Choctaws and Chickasaws, within the territory claimed by France, and had established trading posts, and protected them by regular fortifications, built by the Indians under the instructions of the British traders. These traders omitted no opportunity of rendering the Indians hostile to the French, and endeavoring to unite all the tribes against the latter. To protect the south against the Chickasaws, Vaudreuil determined to invade the heart of the country with a large force, amounting to seven hundred regulars and militia, and a large body of Choctaws, and other Indian allies, from the borders of the Tombigby and Alabama rivers. With this army, having repaired Fort Tombigby, the Governor proceeded by the same route which Bienville had pursued in his first expedition, in 1736, into the Chickasaw country.

Having no artillery, and not being able to draw the Chickasaws out of their fortifications, Vaudreuil contented himself with ravaging their fields, and burning their corn and deserted villages. This done, he established a strong garrison at Fort Tombigby, and returned to New-Orleans. About this period the population of the French colony received a fresh accession in a large number of poor, but virtuous girls, transported from France at the royal expense, and endowed by royal bounty with a small tract of land—a cow and calf—a cock and five hens—a gun and ammunition—an axe and hoe, and a supply of garden seeds. Each of these girls, with her dower, was given by Vaudreuil in marriage to some one of the soldiers, who had received an honorable discharge. This importation continued annually till the year 1751; and from this source have sprung many worthy families in Louisiana, and, doubtless, in Mississippi too.*

In 1755, the war between France and England had reduced the French king to the necessity of forming a treaty, by which the latter ceded to England all that portion of Louisiana lying east of the Mississippi River, except the island of New-Orleans. In 1763, France, by a secret treaty, ceded to Spain all that portion of Louisiana lying west of the Mississippi River, and the island of New-Orleans, lying east of that river, south of bayou Manchac, and the port and river Mobile. The established boundary between Great Britain's and France's possessions acquired by Spain, was the middle line of the Mississippi River down to the Manchac; thence along said bayou and Amite River to Lake Maurepas; thence through Maurepas, Pontchartrain and Borgue, to the sea.

In the meantime Spain had ceded to England all Florida, then embracing all the coast east of Perdido River, and bay, to the St. Mary's River, on the Atlantic coast.

In 1763, Florida was divided, by the English king's decree, into East and West Florida. By this decree, West Florida embraced the country east of the Mississippi River, and north of bayou Iberville *up to the* 31*st* parallel of north latitude, and eastwardly to the Chattahoochy River.

But in 1732, in order to obtain a footing westward to the Mississippi, and north from the Gulf of Mexico, George II. had planned a colony, under Gen. James Oglethorpe, to be called the Province of Georgia—to embrace the unoccupied country south and west of the Atlantic, to the Mississippi River. In 1733, an English colony was planted at Savannah, with the view of carrying out this design. This was the origin of the present State of Georgia.

As by the decree of the king, the 31st degree of north latitude had been established as the boundary of West Florida, of course all of the country north of that line and east of the Mississippi, would, under Oglethorpe's charter, belong to the colony of Georgia.

It is stated by Monette, that the Court of St. James, having learned

* A similar importation was made into Virginia, while a colony, and the girls were sold at auction for tobacco which seems at that early period to have been considered a QUID *pro quo.*

that by fixing the 31st degree of north latitude as the boundary of Florida, they had left out important settlements on the east side of the Mississippi River, and north of that line, issued a second decree, extending the northern boundary of West Florida as far as the mouth of the Yazoo River. But it appears from better authority,* that there was only a commission issued, authorizing the Governor of West Florida to make this extension, without any evidence that it was ever done by any formal declaration.

As long as both Florida and Georgia belonged to Great Britain, this uncertainty of boundary could not be of any practical importance, or give rise to any conflict of jurisdiction; but after the revolt of the American colonies, including Georgia, the actual boundary of West Florida on the north became of great importance to individuals, who had received grants of land north of the 31st degree, from the Governor of West Florida, who had no right to make such grants beyond the limits of West Florida. By the articles of cession from Georgia to the United States, and by the action of a Board of Commissioners established by Congress, many of these grants have been saved, or confirmed; but on the other hand, many have been lost for want of such confirmation by the government of the United States, and for other reasons.†

This uncertainty of boundary also led, at a future period, to misunderstandings between the United States and Spain, as will be hereafter explained in this narrative.

ART. VI.—FESTUS.‡

> "There are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio,
> Than are dreamt of in thy philosophy."

THIS is the title of one of the longest and most extraordinary poems of the age. It is the outpourings of the genius of a young English barrister, who, it may be safely predicted, will, before long, be exalted to the dignity of the wool-sack, if his legal are at all equal to his poetic abilities. He does not inform us why he has adopted the Biblical name of *Festus*, but if we are at liberty to hazard a conjecture, we think it not improbable that he may have wished to invest his work with additional glory, by assuming the name of that Roman Governor of Judea, who told Paul that "much learning had made him mad." As one whose inspiration was but little less than divine has said, that the lover, the lunatic, and the *poet*, are, of imagination, all compact, we might with some propriety include our author in that category, and place him at least one degree below the inspired

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* See 12 Wheaton, 527.

† See 9 Wheaton, 676; 12 Wheaton, 527; and 13 Smedes & Marshall's (Mississippi) Reports, 168.

‡ Festus—a Poem by Phillip James Bailey, Barrister at Law. Boston: Benjamin B. Mussey & Co. 1849.

apostle, who proclaimed those words of truth and *soberness* which seem such madness and folly to the wise men of this world.

As we place a high estimate upon this work, it seems to us to be the duty of the critic to write as freely in condemning its faults, as in lauding its merits. If a work purports to teach a new code of morals, or to inculcate a new system of religion, we would feel culpable in neglecting to scrutinize it, in order to detect any variation from that scheme which was planned by Him who spake as never man spake, and whose Word contains all that is necessary for man to know for his temporal and eternal welfare.

> He spake inspired:
> Night and day, thought came unhelped, undesired,
> Like blood to his heart. The course of study he
> Went through was of the soul-rack. The degree
> He took was high: it was wise wretchedness.
> He *suffered perfectly*.
> God was with him, and bade old Time, to the youth,
> Unclench his heart, and teach the book of ages.

Now, such expressions as these do not come with a good grace from the lips of a young man whose fortune is ample, and whose experience could not have been of so severe a character, as to have warranted the adoption of sentiments which must have been felt in all their intensity by him alone, who suffered for the sins of the whole world. Even if Milton, after a long life of painful preparation by prayer, and patience, and temperance, and by the habitual contemplation of heavenly things, had given utterance to such language, we would have deemed him presumptuous, if not blasphemous. See the difference between self-complacency and that proud humility, which was as becoming to his saintly spirit as the mantle of the prophet Elijah laid on by the divine hands.

> And chiefly thou, O Spirit, that dost prefer
> Before all temples the upright heart and pure,
> Instruct me, for thou knowest; thou from the first
> Wast present, and with mighty wings outspread,
> Dove-like sat'st brooding o'er the vast abyss,
> And mad'st it pregnant. What in me is dark,
> Illumine. What is low, raise and support;
> That to the height of this great argument,
> I may assert eternal Providence,
> And vindicate the ways of God to men.

This comparison is not made with a view to disparage—for we believe that Byron would have been proud to be the author of 'Festus' at any period of his life, and that even Milton himself would not have been ashamed of it in his youth. It is unquestionably a greater production than the "L'Allegro" and the "Penseroso," as exquisite as they are; or even the "Comus," with its solemn grandeur and its heavenly purity. It would be absurd to institute any comparison between it and the "Hours of Idleness," or the works of any other modern writer who had scarcely attained his majority—Pope and Chatterton not excepted. The plan of the poem is evidently mo-

delled after the world-renowned "Faust" of the illustrious Goëthe; and it would be difficult to decide which of them deserves the highest praise. Dr. Johnson has said, that the "Paradise Lost" is not the greatest of heroic poems, only "because it is not the first." If we judge by this standard, "the greatest German man," as Carlyle calls him, is entitled to the precedence; but if we consider the difference between their respective ages—that one is the work of mature years, and the other the offspring of early manhood, the English barrister may obtain a loftier niche in the temple of fame, where both are secure of immortality, as long as the world continues to appreciate the master-pieces of that art which has been called divine.

It is not our purpose at present to enter into a very profound criticism of the work. Had we the capacity to do it justice, it would be too great an expenditure of time. We would be trespassing too much on the patience of our readers to do more than to detach a few scenes which are but common specimens of the gems that stud the entire work. In our author's words—

> 'Twere less toil
> To build Colossus, than to hew a hill
> Into a statue.

The poem having obtained extraordinary popularity in England, and an eighth edition being called for, the author has thought proper to prefix a "Proem" in order to explain—"revising not reversing"—certain passages that were deemed heretical. He says that—

> Its heresies,
> If such they be, are charitable ones;
> For they who read not in the blest belief
> That all souls may be saved, read to no end.
> We were made to be saved.

We have heard of amiable weaknesses, but cannot consider a *charitable heresy* to be worthy to be placed in the same category. If religion is of any importance at all, it must be all-important; consequently a heresy must be fatal, and therefore *un*-charitable. There may be a physician, and there may be physic, but unless the patient takes it, he cannot expect to be cured. The spirit in which a poet should undertake his work, is truthfully and poetically expressed; but it is only an amplification of Horace's precept, that poems should not only be beautiful, but *sweet:*

> 'Tis not enough to draw forms fair and lively,
> Their conduct likewise must be beautiful:
> A hearty holiness must crown the work
> As a gold cross the minster dome, and show
> Like that instonement of divinity,
> That the whole building doth belong to God.

So much for the Proem, which may be compared to the portico of a magnificent edifice, supported by fluted columns wreathed with garlands. The force of imagination which is displayed throughout

the entire work, is truly marvellous. As an example of the creative and plastic power of genius to give to "airy nothing a local habitation and a name," we will select a mountain scene between Festus and Lucifer:—

FESTUS.

Air! And thou, wind!
Which art the unseen similitude of God
The Spirit, His most meet and mightiest sign,
The earth with all her steadfastness and strength,
Sustaining all, and bound about with chains
Of mountains, as is life with mercies, ranging round
With all her sister-orbs, the whole of Heaven
Is not so like the unlikenable One
As thou. Ocean is less divine than thee;
For although all but limitless, it is yet
Visible, many a land not visiting.
But thou art love-like, every where; o'er earth,
O'er ocean triumphing, and aye, with clouds,
That like the ghost of ocean's billows roll,
Decking or darkening Heaven. The sun's light
Floweth and ebbeth daily like the tides;
The moons doth grow or lessen, night by night;
The stirless stars shine forth by fits and hide,
And our companion comets come and go;—
And all are known, their laws and liberties.
But no man can foresee thy coming, none
Reason against thy going—thou art free,
The type impalpable of Spirit, thou.
Thunder is but a momentary thing,
Like a world's death-rattle, and is like death;
And lightning, like the blaze of sin, can blind
Only and slay. But what are these to thee
In thine all-present variousness? Now,
So light as not to wake the snowiest down
Upon the dove's breast, winning her bright way,
Calm and sublime, as grace unto the soul,
Towards her native grove; now strong and stern
As ordnance, overturning tree and tower;
Cooling the white brows of the peaks of fire—
Turning the sea's broad furrow like a plough—
Fanning the fruitening plains, breathing the sweets
Of meadows, wandering o'er blinding snows,
And sands like seabeds, and the streets of cities,
Where men as garnered grain lie heaped together;
Freshening the cheeks, and mingling oft the locks
Of youth and beauty 'neath star-speaking eve;
Swelling the pride of canvass, or, in wrath,
Scattering the fleets of nations, like dead leaves;
In all the same o'ermastering sightless force,
Bowing the highest things of earth to earth,
And lifting up the dust into the stars;
Fate-like, compounding reason, and like God's
Spirit, conferring life upon the world—
Midst all corruption, incorruptible;
Monarch of all the elements! Hast thou
No soft Eolian sylph, with sightless wing,
To spare a mortal for an hour?

LUCIFER.

Peace, peace!

But we anticipate. The poem opens with a scene in Heaven, in which the principal actors are God, Cherubim and Seraphim, Lucifer, the Holy Ghost, Saints, Guardian Angels, and the Son of God. The subordinate characters are, Thrones, Dominations, Powers, Princedoms, Virtues, &c., &c., who are represented as impersonating individuals. And here we cannot but express our disapprobation of the introduction of the Deity into the drama. Poets in all ages have attempted to put suitable language into the mouth of the Deity; but, in order to do the subject justice, He should appear precisely as He is described in the Scriptures, otherwise the poet should prove his own inspiration, and show by what authority he undertakes to fathom the councils of Divine Wisdom. If our poets were competent to this undertaking, the great Heathen and the great Christian bards were the men. And yet, it seems to us that both of them have signally failed. "It is Homer's thunder—not Jove's;" and many have thought that *Satan* was the real hero of Milton's great Epic. God is represented as surrounded by the celestial hierarchy, who prostrate themselves at his footstool, and offer up the incense of praise and adoration. Festus is a young man, who, in search of happiness, takes Lucifer as his spiritual guide, by whom he is conducted through the various scenes of this world, and the infinities of space, even to the throne of the Eternal. As a matter of course, our hero gets into many love-scrapes with charming young ladies; and, as is usually the case, becomes considerably damaged by their unhappy denouement. His first charmer is *Clara*, who endeavors to settle his gloomy doubts, and to soothe his troubled heart; but all in vain. Their interview, we think, might have been more agreeable, if he had been more human; but the divine spark which is pent up in the bosom of the lovers, must have vent;—he must go up like a rocket, though it be his unhappy fate to come down like its stick. Festus, who is as deeply enamored of death and immortality as of his lady love, after enveloping himself in a cloud of metaphysics, of which neither of them have any distinct idea, expresses a wish to inhabit a *star* alone with Clara; but concludes by saying, that he could do as well without as with it. We will give the conclusion of a love scene, which is exceedingly beautiful:—

CLARA.

I'll not wish then for stars; but I could love
Some peaceful spot where we might dwell unknown—
Where home-born joys might nestle round our hearts,
As swallows round our roofs, and blend their sweets,
Like dewy-tangled flowerets, in one bed.

FESTUS.

The sweetest joy, the wildest woe, is love;
The taint of earth—the odor of the skies,
Is in it. Would that I were aught but man!
The death of brutes—the immortality
Of fiend or angel better seems, than all
The doubtful prospects of our painted dust.
And all morality can teach is—Bear;—
And all religion can inspire is—Hope!

CLARA.

It is enough. Fruition of the fruit
Of the great tree of life, is not for earth.
Stars are its fruit, its lightest leaf is life.
The heart hath many sorrows beside love,
Yea, many as the veins which visit it.
The love of aught on earth is not its chief,
Nor ought to be. Inclusive of them all,
There is one main sorrow—LIFE; for what
Can spirit, severed from the great one, God,
Feel but a longing to rejoin
Its infinite, its author, and its end?
And yet is life a thing to be beloved,
And honored holily, and bravely borne.
A man's life may be all ease, and his death,
By some dark chance, unthought-of agony;—
Or life may be all suffering and decease—
A flower-like sleep; or both be full of woe,
Or each comparatively painless. Blame
Not God for inequalities like these!
They may be justified. How canst thou know?
They may be only seeming. Canst thou judge?
They may be done away with utterly
By loving, fearing, knowing God the Truth.
In all distress of spirit, grief of heart,
Bodily agony, or mental woe,
Rebuffs and vain assumptions of the world,
Or the poor spite of weak and wicked souls,
Think thou on God! Think what he underwent,
And did for us as man. Weigh thou thy cross
With Christ's, and judge which were the heavier.
Joy even in thine anguish!—Such was His,
But measurelessly more. Thy suffering
Assimilateth thee to Him. Rejoice!
Think upon what thou shalt be! Think on God!
Then ask thyself—what is the world and all
Its mountainous inequalities. Ah, what!
Are not all equal as dust atomies?

FESTUS.

My soul's orb darkens as a sudden star,
Which, having for a time exhausted earth,
And half the Heavens, of wonder, mortally
Passes forever, not eclipsed, consumed;—
All but a cloudy vapor darkening there
The very spot in space it once illumed.
Once to myself, I seemed a mount of light,
But now a pit of night. No more of this!
Here have I lain all day in this green nook,
Shaded by larch and hornbeam, ash and yew;—
A living well and runnel at my feet,
And wild-flowers dancing to some delicate air;
An urn-topped column, and its ivy wreath,
Skirting my eye, as thus I lie, and look
Upon the blue, unchanging, sacred skies:
And thou, too, gentle Clara, by my side
With lightsome brow and beaming eye, and bright,
Long, glorious locks, which drop upon thy cheek,
Like gold-hued cloud-flakes on the rosy morn.
Oh! when the heart is full of sweets to overflowing,
And ringing to the music of its love,

Who, but an angel or an hypocrite,
Could think or speak of happier states?

CLARA.

Farewell!
Remember what thou saidst about the stars. [*Goes.*

FESTUS.

Oh! why was woman made so fair! or man
So weak as to see that more than one has beauty!
It is impossible to love but one,
And yet I dare not love thee as I could;
For all that the heart most longs for and deserves,
Passes the soonest and most utterly—
The moral of the world's great fable—life;
All we enjoy seems given to deceive;
Or may be, undeceive us; who cares which?
And when the sum is done, and we have proved it,
Why work it over and over still again?
I am not what I would be. Hear me, God!
And speak to me in thine invisible likeness,
The wind, as once of yore. Let me be pure!
Oh! I wish I was a pure child again,
As ere the clear could trouble me; when life
Was sweet and calm as is a sister's kiss;
And not the wild and whirlwind touch of passion,
Which, though it hardly light upon the lip,
With breathless swiftness sucks the soul out of sight;
So that we lose it and all thought of it.
What is this life wherein thou hast founded me,
But a bright wheel which burns itself away,
Benighting even night with its grim limbs,
When it hath done, and fainted into darkness?
Flesh is but fiction, and it flies away;
The gaunt and ghastly thing we bear about us,
And which we hate and fear to look upon,
Is truth, in death's dark likeness limned.

The next charmer to whom Festus pays his addresses, is *Angela*, a lovely spiritual young lady, with whom he has strong sympathies when he is in the sympathetic mood. The scene is laid in "another and a better world," where he has been conducted by Lucifer, who discourses eloquently on the mystery of life and death. Angela expresses her deep regret that he must again return to this false world, where he will soon forget her. He enters his solemn protest against the possibility of such an event.

FESTUS.

When I forget that the stars shine in air—
When I forget that beauty is in stars—
When I forget that love with beauty is—
Will I forget thee: till then, all things else.
Thy love to me was perfect from the first,
Even as the rainbow in its native skies:
It did not grow, let meaner things mature.

ANGELA.

The rainbow lies in heaven and not on earth;
But love can never die; from world to world,
Up the high wheel of heaven, it lives for aye.'

Remember that I wait thee, hoping, here.
Life is the brief disunion of that nature,
Which hath been one and same in heaven ere now,
And shall be yet again, renewed by Death.
Come to me when thou diest.

FESTUS.

I will—I will.

ANGELA.

Then in each other's arms, we will waft through space,
Spirit in spirit, one! or we will dwell
Among these immortal groves; or watch new worlds,
As, like the great thoughts of a maker-mind,
They are rounded out of chaos; and we will
Be oft on earth with those we love, and help them;
For God hath made it lawful for good souls
To make souls good, and saints to help the saintly;—
That thou right soon mayst fold unto thy heart
The blissful consciousness of separate
Oneness with God, in Him in whom alone
The saved are deathless, shall become for thee,
My earliest, earnest, and most constant prayer.
Oh! what is dear to creatures of the earth?
Life, love, light, liberty! But dearer far
Than all, and oh! an universe more divine—
The gift which God endows his chosen with,
Of his own uncreated glory. His,
Before all worlds, all ages, and reserved
Till after all, for those he loves and saves.
As when the eye first views some Andean chain
Of shadowy rolling mountains, based on air,
Height upon height, aspiring to the last
Even to Heaven, in sunny snow-sheen, up
Stretching like angel's pinions, nor can tell
Which be the loftiest nor the loveliest;
As when an army, walking with the sun,
Starts to its feet all hope, spear after spear,
And line on line, reundulating light,
While night's dull watchfires reek themselves away;
So feels the spirit when it first receives
The bright and mountainous mysteries of God,
Containing Heaven, moving themselves towards us
In their free greatness, as by ships at sea,
Come icebergs, pure and pointed as a star
Afar off glittering, of invisible
Depth, and dissolving in the light above.

The next scrape in which our hero is involved, is with *Helen*, at a large party where there is great feasting and merriment. Ladies! we warn you to beware of young gentlemen who make love when the heart is inflamed and the tongue is prodigal of vows under the potent influence of *wine*.

FESTUS.

Then sit we, love, and sip with me,
And I will teach thyself to thee:
Thy nature is so pure and fine,
'Tis most like wine;
Thy blood, which blushes through each vein,
Rosy champaigne;

And the fair skin which o'er it grows,
  Bright as its snows.
Thy wit, which thou dost work so well,
  Is like cool Moselle;
Like Madeira, bright and warm,
  Is thy smile's charm.
Claret's glory hath thine eye,
  Or mine must lie;
But nought can, like thy lips, possess
  Deliciousness.
And now that thou'rt divinely merry,
  I'll kiss and call thee sparkling Sherry.

HELEN.

I sometimes dream that thou wilt leave me
Without thy love, even me, lonely;
And oft I think, though oft it grieve me,
That I am not thy one love only:
But I shall always love thee till
This heart, like earth in death, stand still.

But we must draw our article to a close. Had we sufficient space, it would afford us much pleasure to furnish other extracts and make further comments upon them. The few that we have made, however, we trust are sufficient to give the reader some idea of the power of the author to convert the most ordinary topics into scenes and pictures of surpassing beauty. The main fault that we find with the poem is the want of unity of design, which is indispensable in the plan of a great dramatic or epic poem. It is full of episodes which divert the attention from the main plot—if indeed it can be said to have any plot at all. Both his philosophy and his religion are of an unsettled and vague character, such as might be expected in a young man of aspiring genius and inordinate ambition. Yet we do not consider it irreligious—for it bears the mark of sincerity—but of that kind of sincerity which is often the fruit of skepticism. We do not hesitate to recommend the work to all who are curious to see the workings and cravings of the human heart, laid bare by a masterhand. All who are earnest and honest in learning the truth, will conclude with Festus, that happiness is not to be found in worshiping idols of our imagination, but in obeying God, who alone is truth, and in serving him in whom there is great reward. We will give but one more selection, which is in the form of a prayer, and comprehends his religious and political opinions, in which we think that all good republicans and good Christians will unite with a hearty Amen!

FESTUS.

Grant us, O God! that in thy holy love
The universal people of the world
May grow more great and happy every day;
Mightier, wiser, humbler too, towards Thee:
And that all ranks, all classes, callings, states
Of life, so far as such seem right to Thee,
May mingle into one, like sister trees,
And so in one stem flourish—that all laws

And powers of government be based and used
In good, and for the people's sake ;—that each
May feel himself of consequence to all,
And act as though all saw him ;—that the whole,
The mass of every nation, may so do
As is most worthy of the next to God;
For a whole people's souls, each one worth more
Than a mere world of matter, make combined
A something godlike—something like to Thee.
We pray Thee for the welfare of all men.
Let monarchs who love truth and freedom feel
The happiness of safety and respect
From those they rule, and guardianship from Thee.
Let them remember they are set on thrones—
As representatives, not substitutes
Of nations, to implead with God and man.
Let tyrants who hate truth, or fear the free,
Know that to rule in slavery and error,
For the mere ends of personal pomp and power,
Is such a sin that doth deserve a Hell
To itself sole. Let both remember, Lord!
They are but things like-natured with all nations;
That mountains issue out of plains, and not
Plains out of mountains, and so likewise kings
Are of the people, not the people of kings.

* * * * * *

We entreat Thee, Lord!
For Thy Son's sake, to take away reproach
Of all kinds from Thy Church, and all temptation
Of pomp or power political, that none
May err in the end for which they were appointed
To any of its orders, low or high;
And no ambition of a worldly cast,
Leaven the love of souls unto whose care
They feel propelled by Thy most holy Spirit.
Be every Church established, Lord, in truth.
Let all who preach the word, live by the word,
In moderate estate; and in Thy Church—
One, universal and invisible
World-wards, yet manifest unto itself;
May it seem good, dear Saviour, in Thy sight,
That orders be distinguished not by wealth,
But piety and power of teaching souls.
Equalize labor, Lord! and recompense;
Let not a hundred humble pastors starve,
In this, or any land of Christendom,
While one or two, impalaced, mitred, throned,
And banqueted, burlesque, if not blaspheme
The holy penury of the Son of God.

* * * * *

If policy, or self-defence call forth
Our forces to the field, let us in Thee
Place first our trust, and in Thy name
We shall o'ercome, for we'll only wage the right.
Let us not conquer nations for ourselves,
But for Thee, Lord! who hast predestined us
To fight the battles of the future now,
And to have done with war before Thou comest.
Till then, Lord God of armies, let our foes
Have their swords broken, and their cannon burst,
And their strong cities levelled; and while we
War faithfully and righteously, improve,

Civilize, christianize the lands we win
From savage or from nature. Thou, O God,
Wilt aid and hallow conquest, as of old,
Thine own immediate nations. But we pray
That all mankind may make one brotherhood,
And love and serve each other; that all wars
And feuds die out of nations, whether those
Whom the sun's hot light darkens, or ourselves,
Whom he treats fairly, or the northern tribes,
Whom ceaseless snows and starry winters blench,
Savage or civilized—let every race,
Red, black, or white, olive or tawny-skinned,
Settle in peace, and swell the gathering hosts
Of the great Prince of Peace!

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ART. VII.—THE DESTINY OF NEW-ORLEANS.*

THE annual visitor to the commercial metropolis of Louisiana, who beholds the rapid extension of her limits and the filling up of her vacant squares, formed not many years since from the broad cane-fields of a sugar plantation, unites in the complacent feeling of her citizens, that their city is to become one of the largest marts for the products of human labor in the world. But he who does not read the future altogether from the lights reflected by the past; who takes some just account of the new element at work in shaping the destiny of cities and states as well as men, will ponder before he gives his assent to the flattering prediction. Nature, in the great revelation of moral and physical principles she is making to man, shows herself no longer the partial stepmother, bestowing her favors only on a favored few. In the conquest which she is giving to human intellect over matter, she opens to man's free use her broad valleys and rich mountains, and bids him to work out his own destiny and shape them to his purposes by the magic powers of science with which she is clothing him. Her magnificent rivers, she now tells him, were furrowed out for her own economy, and not merely for the use of man, to whom she has given the power of making his pathways—as capacious for his use as her own streams—over mountain and valley, in whatever direction his interest or convenience may direct them. She is placing all her children, throughout her broad domains, on an equality of privileges, by bestowing on all a power that will overcome all natural physical obstacles; and leaving the contest for privilege and superiority to be decided by the powers of the intellect, and the prize of success only to those who labor for it, and are worthy of the triumph.

As every acre of land bordering on our old "Father of Waters" and its tributaries, below the mouth of the Ohio, is to be affected by the destiny of New-Orleans, we deem it "our duty as well as right," to mount our editorial horoscope, and endeavor to discover what star in the zodiac is to govern the fortunes of our commercial capital.

New-Orleans is the *entrepot* of the most magnificent valley of the earth. If none of the modern improvements of transportation and intercommunication had been discovered, the main artery of our continent, with its tributaries, would have drawn the commerce, as it drains the waters, from

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* From the Concordia Intelligencer, a paper which utters the most wholesome truths, and is deserving the widest patronage.—[ED.]

every recess of this vast valley, into the golden crescent of that favored city. But in this age, and for all future time, commerce is enfranchised from following the current of rivers, and now opens to itself its own channels. That moral and intellectual power that creates trade, excavates highways for it through the most stubborn and loftiest barriers of nature. The genius of an energetic people now shapes its own destiny. The capacity and economy of rail-roads for the transportation of heavy burthens has never yet been conceived, or, at least, not tested. Recent experiments have developed facts that astonish us. When we see a single locomotive, directed and attended by only three men, consuming not one hundredth part of the fuel required for a steamer, careering over a road at a speed of 20 miles an hour, bearing in its train 500 tons of coal,—a cargo for a ship,—we are led to ask ourselves, What are the value and advantages of what have been called "Nature's Highways?" If 500 tons is now an extraordinary burthen for a locomotive, as it was, a few years ago, for one of our steamers, a thousand tons will, in a few years, be no uncommon train for a locomotive, as it is a common cargo now for our largest boats.

Unfortunately for New-Orleans, she is lacking in the right kind of public spirit,—in that unity of feeling necessary to make her population one people. Still worse: the men who create and direct her commerce are strangers, who have no permanent stake in her future destiny. In most instances they are there to inhabit her dwellings for a few years, to gather the means of building up and gracing old homes, to which they carry their wealth. Capital does not accumulate, because its resources are drained by a ruinous absenteeism; and the spirit of trade and enterprise, that, in more permanent communities, looks abroad and identifies itself with the future growth and permanent interest of the community, and becomes enlightened public spirit, degenerates, in a community congregated for the mere purposes of trade for a few years, into a narrow and ruinous selfishness, under whose spirit no city can long prosper in an age in which it has to compete with nobler motives and more enlightened views.

It may be asked, Has not New-Orleans her permanent population, and is she not increasing in wealth? Yes. Certainly, the estimated taxable value of her wealth has largely increased; but it is in the assumed valuation of her houses and lots which depend on the breath of her trade for their value, as much as the bank note does of the specie it represents. As one departs, the other falls; they possess no intrinsic exchangeable value. And this property is exchangeable value. And this property is exclusively held by the permanent population; and unfortunately it is all they hold, and it is too much in large masses. How seldom do the habits and spirit which proprietorship engenders, rise above itself, there, and mark out and carry forward the great improvements that change the course of the trade of the country? The landlords of New-Orleans can lay out streets, build banquets and dig drains, for those improvements increase the rent roll; but larger enterprises are wild schemes, and entail exorbitant taxes, and are delayed and avoided. To keep pace with the age, a community must ally itself permanently with the young and vigorous SPIRIT OF TRADE, which reduces often the wildest schemes to sober realities.

We have been led into these reflections and a series of inquiries, by observing that the merchants of Lake Providence, Vicksburg, and Natchez, have begun to receive a portion of their goods from the East by the Northern Route,—through the canals and over the railroads of Pennsylvania, Ohio and Illinois. If goods can be brought through these channels with greater expedition, cheaper and safer than by the way of the sea and New-Orleans, we suppose that our products may be sent thither, by the same channels, with the same advantages. These channels are

becoming more numerous annually, and the capacity of those already in existence for transportation is being daily enlarged. We are informed that a large portion of last year's products of Southern Ohio have gone forward to New-York through her canals and railways, and that the freight down the river this season, from above the falls, will be much less than in former years. Ohio flour has not been so plentiful in New-Orleans this year as formerly, and we have heard that New-Orleans appeared to have been forgotten, of late, on 'Change at Cincinnati, where daily at one o'clock are reported the operations in the New-York market up to twelve o'clock of the same day; and it was these reports, and not intelligence from New-Orleans, as formerly, that determined the prices in the Cincinnati market. The Ohio and Pennsylvania canals, during last summer, were gorged with freight going East. The new railway from Cincinnati to Sandusky has been unable to take a tithe of the freight offered to it, and a few months ago we were told by a gentleman connected with the road, that the company then had upwards of three hundred men engaged in building burthen cars, for the coming season's use. The Wabash and Erie Canal is stretching its line down the banks of the Wabash, and, as fast as it extends itself, it sweeps the whole products of the valley up the river, against its natural current, to the Eastern markets, by way of the Lakes. The Illinois Canal has already carried off the contents of the enormous granaries on the banks of the Illinois River, which till this season had no other outlet than the Mississippi River;—and the pork and beef of the same line will take the same route this spring. The Galena and Chicago railway, opened a short time ago, is gathering the lead of Galena and Dubuque and the whole products of the Northern section of the state, and directing them to the East, instead of their floating to the South on the broad current of the Mississippi,—Nature's grandest highway,—as heretofore; and as the Lakes are open as early as the upper portions of the river, we shall probably, hereafter, see little of the productions of Iowa and Wisconsin passing our door. Another rail-road has been surveyed to pass through the central portions of Illinois and Indiana, from St. Louis to Cincinnati, to swell the tide of direct commerce from the West to the Eastern cities. These are all projected by Eastern capital, which is never mistaken in its aim. *Tobacco*, along the shores of the lower Ohio and the Cumberland, has been sent forward to New-York by these routes. *Cotton* from Nashville and Memphis has found its way to all the interior factories of New-York and Pennsylvania by the same channels; 60,000 bales of cotton, we have been told by one well informed in the business, passed up the Ohio from the crop of 1847, and have been omitted in all the estimates of that crop. He estimates the quantity that will take the same destination, this year, at 100,000 bales. These new outlets not only carry elsewhere a vast amount of products that must have, in the natural course of events, flowed down the Mississippi; but they introduce into the same regions of the country from the Eastern markets, all the groceries and other goods which were purchased in, or at least, passed through New-Orleans. They are thus sapping the trade of our commercial capital on both sides.

But the designs upon the rich and boundless field of trade which New-Orleans has occupied fully in the past, and enjoys more fully in the prospective, end not with these projects. Maryland and Virginia are stretching two long arms into the valley of the Ohio, with the intention of each drawing a portion of its trade to herself. South Carolina has already insidiously extended her hand into the Tennessee valley, and will shortly snatch from New-Orleans all the trade of North Alabama and Tennessee. She is pushing the same grasping hand into the rich bottoms of the Cumberland, and has an eye on the fine fields of Kentucky and the shores of

the Ohio river. She aims to draw to herself the *tobacco* of Green River and the trade of the Ohio, by a road from Nashville to Louisville, and the *hemp* manufactures and the stock of the fertile counties around Lexington and Frankfort, by a branch road that shall intersect her trunk line.

That these schemes are not visionary with Charleston and are most dangerous to the prosperity of New-Orleans, will be shown by a few simple facts. The shortest and most expeditious route from the mouth of the Ohio River to Washington or any of the Eastern cities, will be, when the South Carolina road is completed, up the Tennessee River to Tuscumbia, thence to Charleston and Northward. Paducah, by this route, is less than four days travel from Washington. Trade usually follows the course of travel. Many months in the year, often four or five, the Cumberland is so low that it costs more to transport goods from Smithland to Nashville than would pay for their transportation from Charleston to Nashville, by railway;—and for five or six months in every year, all the rich products of Middle Tennessee and a portion of Kentucky on the Cumberland are embargoed now, but would find an egress over the Charleston rail-way. The bagging and rope, negro clothes and manufactures of every kind, produced in Kentucky and consumed in South Carolina, Georgia, Eastern Alabama and Florida, which now pass through New-Orleans, go over a rail-way to Charleston, and thence are distributed through those states by other rail-ways *from* Charleston. The *hemp* and *tobacco* of the interior counties would be likely to find their way to the New-York market by the same means of transportation, instead of being hauled over long roads to the Ohio to be sent by the way of New-Orleans. That city must relinquish forever the cotton and produce trade from above the shoals of the Tennessee; and, anon, the pleasant and profitable intercourse which it has securely held, from the period of the first settlement on Tennessee with the lovely and fertile districts around Huntsville, Tuscumbia and Florence, will cease; the shores below those points present almost an unbroken wilderness, and that magnificent river will roll its current in silence and solitude as unbroken as before its shores were trodden by civilized man.

Returning on the line of her main trunk to the parallel of Montgomery, South Carolina has projected a branch westward through some of the finest districts of Alabama and Mississippi to Natchez, immediately opposite us. Even the river, she says, shall be no barrier to the extension of her road—and she has been for years talking to the planters in our neighborhood, and on Black, Ouachita and Red rivers, endeavoring to persuade them that her road would afford a shorter and cheaper route to the Atlantic for their products than that by the way of New-Orleans and the Capes of Florida. She has been for years looking forward to Texas and the Rio Grande, and, perhaps, is now extending her aims to California. Her views may be deemed presumptuous, but if she continues to pursue the even tenor of her way with the silent energy and persevering industry that she has displayed for the last five years, she will encircle the Crescent City in her toils, so adroitly and secretly laid, that it may be difficult for her victim to escape. The progress of the internal improvements of Georgia and South Carolina, for the last eight years, amid obstacles and embarrassments that have arrested the works of almost all other Southern and Western states, illustrates the power of a few sagacious and adventurous minds, to call forth and direct the energies of a people. Three men like the Haynes and Gadsdens of South Carolina, would turn the wilderness and swamps of Louisiana into blooming gardens, and raise New-Orleans to a rivalry with New-York in greatness and wealth.

Mobile is waking up from the sleep of years, and endeavoring to enter as a competitor into fields of enterprise to which New-Orleans may assert

a claim of right from the liberality of nature. She has projected a Railway that shall intersect the South Carolina and Georgia Roads as they extend west, with the design of carrying her main trunk to the mouth of the Ohio, and thence opening a channel of commerce to her own port, that shall draw trade from the shores of the Mississippi. The stock has been taken in a mode that shows her citizens have engaged with spirit and earnestness in the enterprise. A very large amount of stock has already been subscribed, not in large sums by wealthy capitalists, for speculative purposes, but nearly every citizen,—including her mechanics and laborers,—has taken his portion, and looks for his dividends in the increased prosperity and employment that the road will bring to himself individually, by the general improvement of the trade of the city.

With all these taps draining the sources of her growth and prosperity, it is incumbent on the citizens of New-Orleans, interested in her permanent welfare, to do all in their power to counteract these diversions of her trade. Instead of throwing the great burthens of her government upon her commerce, like the farmer who exhausts the fertility of and ruins his fields by the attempt to produce a few extraordinary crops, New-Orleans should relieve her trade and merchants from every tax and burthen she can take from them, at the same time that she grants to them every facility that her enviable position enables her to confer. As rapidly as she reduces the necessary and unavoidable expenses of her merchants, competition, which is now every where so rife, will lessen in the same *ratio* with their charges upon the commodities that pass through their hands. Her magnificent levee, spacious enough to accommodate the commerce of the whole valley, should be covered with warehouse-sheds, where could be received and stored the vast amount of products brought to it by steamboats and flatboats, on which a slight charge for storage and warehousing, like the charges in the Docks at Liverpool, not amounting to one-third the sums which we understand have now to be paid to individuals in New-Orleans for storage, would yield a revenue which would, in a few years, pay the entire public expenses of the city.

But it is complacently said by many of her citizens, that New-Orleans can never be robbed of the large commerce derived from the cotton and sugar regions dependent upon her, which, under all circumstances, will be sufficient to make her a city of the first class in the commercial world. But these gentlemen can scarcely be conscious how little of the activity and bustle of her streets is occasioned by the cotton trade. From its nature it is capable of great concentration, and becomes almost a monopoly in the hands of a few. By systematizing the business a little farther, two or three large houses, with proper organization, could do the whole cotton business of New-Orleans. It maintains a few quiet and retired counting-rooms, where a few respectable gentlemen drive quills over well glazed letter sheets and ledgers, but it is doubtful whether these pay as much upon the rent roll of the city as the barbers and shoemakers. The magnificent cotton presses,—the storehouses of so much wealth, rise in solitary quarters, and remain in dull and lonely neighborhoods. They do not, like factories and foundries, create life and activity around them. A few hundred negroes do their whole labor, and their beneficial influence upon the growth of the city is scarcely felt beyond their own walls. Mobile has a cotton trade nearly one half as large as that of New-Orleans, and is still increasing. Yet small as she is compared with her sister city, she is falling to decay, and her streets are becoming grass-grown and solitary, and as a last death-struggle for her commercial existence, she is making a desperate effort to secure a trade which New-Orleans can command by the most magnificent channel of nature's own digging, and which she is

supinely relinquishing to others. Savannah and Charleston have had their cotton trade, which has never left them, yet they sunk into insignificance till they were aroused to a manly effort to draw to them a more profitable trade. The cotton trade, though large in amount, pays but a small per centage to those who are engaged only in its transportation. These are considerations which should commend themselves to the serious attention of the City Fathers of our Commercial Metropolis. They may arouse the belief that something more, on their part, than a quiet confidence in its incomparable natural advantages, is necessary to shape the *Destiny of New-Orleans* on the scale of unrivalled greatness to which her citizens fondly extend their idea of her future.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—DIRECT TRADE OF THE SOUTH WITH EUROPE.

George G. Henry, of Mobile, as chairman of a committee, lately read a paper upon this interesting subject, before the State's Rights Association of Alabama, and sends us a copy. We are delighted to keep this ball in motion, having, in our last number, shown that even New-Orleans could be aroused in regard to it. Witness the circular of Mr. Mure. We extract from Mr. Henry's report:

The cost of a steam propeller capable of carrying 3,000 bales of cotton, we can only approximate towards. A steam propeller of 1,400 tons has been built in New-York for $160,000. In Glasgow, iron steam propellers, finished for 75 cabin and 75 steerage passengers, of 1,600 tons, have been proposed to be, and, perhaps, have been built, for £30,000, equal with exchange to $145,000. The tonnage of 3,000 bales cotton, of 500 lbs., is 669 tons; but as it requires about a 900 ton ship to stow the 669 tons of cotton, allowing for the weight of coal and engines, it might require a 1,400 ton propeller, or thereabouts, to transport the cotton. The cost will be vastly less than the side paddle steamer has been, and indeed we may say, since the employment in building them has become so extended, and the art of building them so generally understood, the expense of their construction has been and is daily diminishing. And in this is centred one of our great advantages. All the expenses of experiments, delays and disappointments, have been undergone by others, and we begin with all the experience which their many years of trial furnishes to us. The momentous reality that the ocean can be navigated by the aid of steam, successfully and safely, is no longer an experiment.

We now pass to the advantages which would accrue to us by their being built here, and they need merely to be enumerated. Alabama has exclusive control in the South of a resource of inestimable wealth—coal, which the building of these propellers would develope, and make Mobile the most important market for, south at all events. The capital that would be employed in this production, and the people it would furnish employment to, would be important elements of state wealth. And it must be remembered that this necessary for steam navigation, is a security to us against dangerous or extensive competition.

The furnishing the timber, pitch, &c., will be converting another natural production into an active element of wealth, which, to the calculating, will be appreciated as exceedingly valuable.

Besides which, it will afford constant employment to a great many skillful mechanics, and their assistants, to build them; the number of persons employed in cutting and delivering the timber, pitch, &c., would be very great. The manning and officering them would be giving employment to our own men and boys; and the profits of this investment would not only be divided amongst our own people, but all the profits attending those other pursuits would also be enriching our own citizens.

The business one propeller would do, allowing her 20 days to cross, and eight days to cleanse and load in port, would be to cross 13 times in the year.

At this rate, eight propellers would furnish a weekly line to the other side of the Atlantic. At 3,000 bales each, the eight would carry 156,000 bales over. Suppose we pause here, to examine the business of our port, and the profits of shipping. Our receipt of cotton is about 500,000 bales per annum. To take this off, 167 ships, of 1,500 bales capacity, making two trips a year, would be necessary. These ships, costing $30,000 each, amount in value to $5,000,000. It can be shown that ships pay 30 per cent. profit on the investment. If so, these ships clear annually, from the business of our port, $1,500,000. Does any one ask how much Mobile or Alabama is interested in this investment, or what proportion of this profit goes to our citizens? It is a serious inquiry. Not one dollar do we own in this pursuit.

We pass now to the consideration of the inquiry contained in the last clause of the resolution: the facility, in connection with the building of the steamers, with which direct trade with Europe, upon an extended scale, could be conducted.

Powerful and profitable as are the results from the branches of the subject we have imperfectly examined, they are individual in their character, compared with the transcendent advantages the citizens of Alabama would derive from the stimulus to trade they would impart. Establish a line of steamers hence to Liverpool, Havre, Bremen, &c., and a stream of trade and travel would avail themselves of it, beyond the computation of the most enthusiastic. We base this opinion upon the present trade of the state, and the invariable result of regular aid and rapid communication to attract and develope commerce. We will submit some items of profit, and others of saving, which will be realized to the state if we embark on, and complete this system, and which, if it is tried, will be extended almost indefinitely. The sales of merchandise in Alabama in 1848, as per Comptroller's report, on which taxes were paid, were $14,000,000. Proportionate to the imports of the United States, and our population, we would be buyers in Alabama of over $6,000,000 of foreign goods; but as ours is not a manufacturing population, and as the general wealth of the state enables the people to buy more costly, and proportionally more extensively, than many of the other states, it is reasonable to assume, that of the amount of imported goods sold, of the $14,000,000 referred to, $8,000,000 at least were foreign.

We have before estimated that the profits realized by shipping, engaged in the trade of our port, were $1,500,000. We begin our exhibit with this item, although we will not calculate our propellers will command so enormous dividends; yet if, from their constant and regular employment, carrying both ways, they can afford to reduce the average price of freight on cotton, which for the past ten years has been about five-eighths of a penny a pound; and by aying goods down for importers at a reduced rate, this will operate as a saving to the state; so we put down profits on shipping, $1,500,000.

The saving of New-York jobbers' profits, and charges from New-York out, with merchants' expenses to and from New-York, would be 20 per cent. or more—this on $8,000,000 would be	$1,600,000
Four months' interest on $8,000,000 would be saved by importing the goods direct, and having them in the government warehouses until the eve of sale—this is	213,333
Twenty days' interest saved on $24,000,000 for short passage of 400,000 bales of cotton	80,000
New-York importers' profits and commissions saved to our own importers and merchants, 10 per cent	800,000
One and a fourth per cent. commissions and incidental profits to our own collector, in the discharge of that amount of business through the custom-house	100,000
Profits of our share of insurance	250,000
State, county, and city taxes, on the increase of $8,000,000 of business in Mobile	80,000
Making	$4,623,333

per annum, either made or saved to the citizens of the state, and sufficient in its amount, through the operations of one year, to build some thirty steam pro-

pellers, sufficient to do the carrying of the port, with our present trade. Those figures are large, and it will be easy to say they are conjectural, but we invite to their examination those whose information on such subjects qualify them to correct any errors which may have escaped us. These estimates are only predicated on our present trade. If so, what would they reach were we to remain as we are in this particular, until the rail-road to the mouth of the Ohio, tapping the great West, the Selma and Tennessee, and the Mobile and Girard rail-roads, are all completed. Our receipts of cotton must then be not far from 900,000 bales, and numberless other staples and productions will be added to our supply—and the entire trade of the city will be probably quadrupled. Need any further argument be submitted to urge us to some united effort, to secure the rich returns made through this investment!

The inducements already submitted, we are persuaded, are sufficiently powerful—but we will simply add, that in preparing propellers for our present trade, we take a very important step towards securing a large share of that trade which will concentrate on the Gulf of Mexico—a trade which has never been equalled in the annals of history—enough for a hundred cities. The beautiful West Indies, of unparalleled fertility, form a magnificent chain, which, like a string of diamonds, glitter and cluster on its bosom. To court their trade will be to command it. Mexico is on it, and contiguous to us. The Oronoco, connected with the Amazon by the Rio Negro, has its northern embouchure in the Caribbean Sea, from whence the varied productions of Venezuela, and interior South America, will swell the tide of our commerce.

2.—ANNUAL STATISTICS OF NEW-ORLEANS.

We conclude the statistics of New-Orleans trade for last year, which have run through our numbers since October last, and for which we are indebted to the labors of our friend, Mr. Littlefield, of the Prices Current. We have regularly published these statistics in our volumes, running back for *fifteen years*, which must give the volumes great value with the mercantile community of our city and country. A few sets still remain on hand.

EXPORTS OF COTTON AND TOBACCO FROM NEW-ORLEANS.

	COTTON.		TOBACCO.	
WHITHER EXPORTED.	1849-'50.	1848-'49.	1849-'50.	1848'-49.
Liverpool.....bales..	378155	603455	hhds..6669	6120
London	1367	305	6723	5362
Glasgow and Greenock	10857	27533		
Cowes, Falmouth, &c	3741	11237	3435	2535
Cork, Belfast, &c	3069	2488		
Havre	112159	139910	718	6998
Bordeaux	1006	3424	579	1450
Marseilles	3618	11313	759	2192
Nantz, Cette and Rouen	630			
Amsterdam				
Rotterdam and Ghent	572	2659	824	
Bremen	1801	12137	7719	4841
Antwerp, &c	11994	24338	2244	1077
Hamburg	112	5321	573	80
Gottenburg	5021	7303	1365	1041
Spain and Gibraltar	46296	42823	4726	5620
Havana, Mexico, &c	2292	16328		
Genoa, Trieste, &c	36362	41614	5874	3845
China				
Other foreign ports	6496	9304	1375	882
New-York	84891	67611	11303	7318
Boston	109089	111584	1169	1089
Providence, R. I		360		
Philadelphia	15616	18486	1291	1426
Baltimore	4017	4959	277	885
Portsmouth				
Other coastwise ports	230	511	337	135
Western States		2300		
Total	838591	1167302	57955	52896

RECAPITULATION.

	1849-'50.	1848-'49.	1849-'50.	1848-'49.
Great Britain.....bales	397189	645018	hhds 16820	14017
France	117413	154647	2056	10640
North of Europe	25196	61062	12725	7039
South of Europe and China	84950	100765	11975	10347
Coastwise	213843	205811	14379	10853
Total	838591	1167303	57955	52896

IMPORTS AT NEW-ORLEANS FROM 1ST SEPTEMBER TO 31ST AUGUST.

ARTICLES.	1849-'50.	1848-'49.	ARTICLES.	1849-'50.	1848-'49.
Apples.....bbls	37244	54987	Iron, Pig.....tons	20	413
Bacon, ass'd..casks, &c.	38336	32056	Lard.....hhds	215	790
Bacon....bbls and boxes	28941	32156	Lard....tcs. & bbls	228019	214362
Bacon, Hams.....hhds	19335	19831	Lard.....kegs	302366	275485
Bacon, in bulk.....lbs	209045	217000	Lime, western..bbls	32060	10410
Bagging.....pieces	58321	72941	Lead.....pigs	415400	508537
Bale Rope.....coils	86104	93322	Lead, bar.....kegs	631	949
Beans.....bbls	9307	13157	Lead, white....kegs	5979	7795
Butter.....kegs	51058	57972	Molasses.....bbls	189813	155807
Butter.....bbls	1772	2144	Oats.....bbls & sks	325795	266559
Beeswax.....bbls	367	481	Onions.....bbls	13024	6898
Beef....bbls and tierces	65271	70590	Oil, linseed.....bbls	1098	1409
Beef, dried.....lbs	48219	20300	Oil, castor.....bbls	2091	2628
Buffalo Robes.....packs	358	23	Oil, lard.....bbls	14712	8842
COTTON. La. and Miss..bales	474411	811205	Pickles..kegs & bbls	247	639
COTTON. Lake.....bales	10902	15781	Potatoes.....bbls	166003	146116
COTTON. N. Ala. & Ten...do	249683	217078	Pork.....tcs. & bbls	543694	530643
COTTON. Arkansas.....do	44890	46733	Pork.....boxes	15695	18279
COTTON. Montgomery, &c. do	17501	9839	Pork.....hhds	13968	18499
COTTON. Mobile.....do	23647	25325	Pork, in bulk....lbs	15862431	10273680
COTTON. Florida.....do	10601	5065	Porter & Ale...bbls	804	1838
COTTON. Texas.....do	6088	11356	Packing Yarn..reels	4131	2211
Corn Meal.....bbls	5187	12097	Skins, Deer...packs	1375	1301
Corn, in ears.....bbls	42719	295711	Shot.....kegs	4435	4377
Corn, shelled.....sacks	1114897	1706312	Sugar.....hhds	143912	125592
Cheese.....boxes	62809	54287	Sugar.....bbls	17395	5879
Candles.....boxes	55306	28362	Soap.....boxes	9930	6520
Cider.....bbls	903	1189	Shingles.....	70000	80000
Coal, western.....bbls	600000	315000	Staves.....	6000000	3800000
Dried Peaches.....bbls	934	469	Tallow.....bbls	4862	5622
Dried Apples.....bbls	2065	2495	Tobacco, leaf..hhds	60304	52335
Flaxseed.....tierces	217	1188	Tobacco, chew, kegs	2021	2315
Flour.....bbls	591986	1013177	Tobacco.....bales	153	33
Furs....hhds., bxs. bdls	444	200	Twine.....bdls	2118	2067
Feathers.....bags	5900	3939	Whiskey.....bbls	117753	125029
Hemp.....bales	34792	19856	Window Glass..bxs	4887	575
Hides.....bales	43542	30570	Wheat...bbls & sks	57508	238911
Hay.....bales	56258	54241	.....	....	....

ARRIVALS AT NEW-ORLEANS.

	1849-'50.							1848-'49.						
	Ships.	B'ks.	B'gs.	Schrs.	St. Sh'ps.	Total.	St. Boats.	Ships.	B'ks.	B'gs.	Schrs.	St. Ships.	Total.	St. Boats.
September	27	21	10	29	12	99	109	27	9	11	32	7	86	164
October	96	26	22	29	15	188	184	45	23	24	33	13	138	215
November	108	43	41	52	14	258	243	96	47	44	37	14	238	289
December	60	52	48	54	9	223	334	87	57	60	45	10	259	381
January	78	56	46	83	13	276	352	71	62	47	50	11	241	325
February	52	32	40	67	11	202	311	101	62	39	39	10	251	313
March	66	42	44	79	13	244	318	70	61	53	54	15	253	321
April	76	31	45	82	11	245	238	132	56	34	53	11	286	257
May	22	20	23	57	13	135	239	74	32	19	43	15	183	191
June	38	12	19	51	10	130	171	40	22	25	31	8	126	153
July	10	14	17	40	13	94	152	12	19	10	21	12	74	135
August	21	14	7	43	13	98	133	2	12	9	18	10	51	130
Total	654	363	362	666	147	2192	2784	757	462	375	456	136	2186	2873

SUGAR AND MOLASSES EXPORTS—(UP RIVER EXCEPTED.)

WHITHER EXPORTED.	SUGAR. Hhds. 1849-50.	SUGAR. Bbls. 1849-'50.	MOLASSES. Hhds. 1849-'50.	MOLASSES. Bbls. 1849-'50.	SUGAR. Hhds. 1848-'49.	SUGAR. Bbls. 1848-'49.	MOLASSES. Hhds. 1848-'49.	MOLASSES. Bbls. 1848-'49.
New-York	42523	2229	2078	42776	44333	1532	1837	38892
Philadelphia	18344	3074	—	14636	18749	2232	410	14252
Charleston, S.C	5014	683	—	10531	3726	365	—	6659
Savannah	1981	300	82	4279	1661	20	—	1096
Providence & Bristol, R.I.	—	—	247	37	—	—	—	230
Boston	3929	961	—	2792	242[0]	964	76	2054
Baltimore	8101	2225	—	13432	1065[2]	2991	77	9448
Norfolk, Richmond and Petersburg, Va.	6600	882	30	6134	6289	1204	—	7139
Alexandria, D. C.	649	—	—	600	528	—	—	748
Mobile	2876	1526	—	8850	4549	1463	—	9120
Apalachicola & Pensacola	1830	460	—	5370	1363	294	—	3601
Other ports	873	1602	305	3237	220	316	250	532
Total	92720	13942	2742	112674	94490	11381	2650	93771

3.—TRADE OF ST. LOUIS.

The St. Louis Republican of the 1st Jan. 1851, contains an elaborate statement of the trade of that city for the year 1850, from which we make the following extract: having already published the previous years.

TOBACCO.

This article is classed among the most important agricultural productions of our state, and since 1838, has attracted considerable attention for export. While the receipts for 1850 fall short 609 hhds., compared with the receipts of the previous year, they still slightly exceed the receipts of 1848.

Total receipts in 1850	9,055
Receipts of 1849	9,664
Decrease in 1850	609

HEMP.

Receipts of Hemp during the past year, greatly exceed those of any year since 1847, when they reached over 72,222 bales, a circumstance, however, measurably owing to the non-reception during the preceding year of the crop due, the receipts of 1846 having been less than 34,000 bales. The market throughout 1849 was marked by more firmness than during the past year, and the rates were higher, having ranged between $120 and $126, varying little from January to December. At the close of 1849, the stock in store was 893 bales. The stock in store and on sale at the close of 1850, is about 2,000 bales. The market during January was inactive at the figures of the previous year, and declined in February to $90 a $105 per ton. The ruling rates for the balance of the year were $80 to $95.

Total	60,862
Receipts of 1849	46,290
Increase of 1850 over 1849	14,572

LEAD.

The production of this article has been gradually declining since 1845; receipts, per rivers, since that time, having fallen off from 750,877 pigs, to 573,502. In the meantime the demand for home consumption has materially increased, and very little has been exported. In consequence of this decline in production, prices have gone up, and during the two last years have ranged much higher than for many years previous. For the greater part of the past year the price of upper mines lead has been over $4 25, and the market closes firmly at $4 37½ to $4 40 per 100 lbs.

Actual Product of Upper Mines for the two last years.

In 1850	567,946	pigs, or	37,589,728	pounds.
In 1849	625,463	" "	42,531,634	"
Decrease	57,967		4,941,906	"

Actual Product of Lower Mines, for 1850.

Richwood mines	11,872	pigs, or	832,430	"
Other mines	74,104	" "	5,167,570	"
	85,976		6,000,000	

WHEAT.

Receipts of this article during the year just closed, have slightly exceeded those of last year, but fall short of those of '46, '47 and '48. The last year has doubtless been a better wheat year than 1849, but owing to a generally entertained opinion that the article must advance, farmers and shippers held back until threatened by closing navigation. This will account for the heavy receipts during November, compared with other months in the year.

Receipts per rivers in 1850	1,792,074	bush.
Receipts per rivers in 1849	1,762,535	"
Increase of 1851 over 1849	29,539	"

FLOUR.

Receipts by rivers in 1850	292,718
Received by rivers in 1849	301,933
Decrease	9,215

Receipts per Wagons, during 1850.

From Centre Mills (new) Ill., since 30th Sept	1833
" Hope " " " 1st Jan	1435
" Planet " " " 1st Jan	1735
" Harmony " " " 1st Jan	2405
" Harrison's (Ill.,) and other sources	24,944
Total	32,352
Add receipts per rivers	292,718
Total of all receipts for 1850	325,070

CORN.

While the receipts for corn for the last year have almost quadrupled those of the year preceding, the ruling rates have almost doubled those of that year. The demand has been active throughout, and the remaining stock on sale at the close is by no means large.

Total receipts by river, 1850	484,014
Receipts of 1849	142,182
Increase of 1850 over 1849	341,832

PORK.

The receipts of the last year vary but little from those of 1849, but our monthly table will show that the bulk of the sum total was the product of 1849, very little having been received since the present packing season commenced. The high price of corn induced growers to send forward that staple, rather than apply it to fattening, and hence few hogs have been prepared for slaughtering. Up to the present date of the last packing season, the number of hogs slaughtered in this city alone, was nearly 115,000; and at points above, and throughout the West, the number was also large. So far as we are informed with regard to the present season, only 55,000 hogs have been killed in this city, and a corresponding falling off is observed throughout the country.

This deficiency must advance the price of pork, but whether sufficient to remunerate dealers for the high price paid for hogs, is doubtful. The hog market opened timidly at figures approximating to $3; but since the commencement has steadily advanced, until within a few days, since which it has been less firm, and few sales are now effected beyond $4 for hogs weighing 220 lbs., though drovers are contending for $4 15 to $4 20.

	Trs.	Bbls.
Total receipts for 1850	1873	101,562
" " " 1849	1745	111,164

Receipts at this Port of the principal articles of Produce for the last two years.

	1849.	1850.
Wheat, sacks	881,428	927,346
Flour, barrels, per rivers	301,933	298,231
Flour, barrels, per wagons	——	32,452
Corn, sacks	142,182	784,014
Oats, sacks	126,835	348,716
Barley, sacks	44,613	34,744
Pork, barrels	113,909	101,562
Pork, tierces	——	1,873
Salt, sacks	289,580	261,230
Salt, barrels	22,557	19,158
Hemp, bales,	45,227	60,862
Lead, pigs	591,851	573,502
Tobacco, hogsheads	9,664	9,055
Beef, barrels	14,837	6,049
Beef, tierces	3,121	2,586
Dry Hides	68,395	94,228
Whiskey, barrels	28,741	25,959
Sugar, hogsheads	23,814	25,796
Sugar, brls	3,000	6,034
Sugar, boxes	3,064	12,388
Coffee, sacks	58,702	73,678
Molasses, barrels	31,217	29,518
Lard, barrels	64,615	61,535
Lard, tierces	11,041	17,925
Lard, kegs	15,512	14,549
Bacon, tierces	2,195	7,087
Bacon, casks	21,764	23,248
Bacon, barrels	1,646	3,019
Bacon, boxes	2,263	1,330
Bacon, pieces	——	46,978
Bacon, pounds	——	32,496
Bacon, bagged hams	——	2,593
Bulk Pork, casks	——	1,096
Bulk Pork, boxes	——	100
Bulk Pork, pieces	——	301,381
Bulk Pork, pounds	12,889,360	1,841,747

TONNAGE.

The number of steamboats arrived during the year was as follows:

	1849.	1850.
From New-Orleans	313	303
Ohio River	401	493
Illinois River	686	788
Upper Mississippi	806	635
Missouri River	355	390
Cairo	122	75
Other points	217	215
Total,	2,900	2,599

It appears that 246 different boats arrived at the port during the year.

4.—MEMPHIS, TENN.

Every day gives me additional evidence of the increasing prosperity of this already prosperous city—and although her commerce is great, yet upon that alone her public-spirited citizens do not intend to rely, for the notes of preparation are already heard in various quarters, and in addition to her commerce, manufactories will soon claim a part in adding to her wealth. Preparations are now making for the establishment of a very large boat-yard, to be conducted on a scale as extensive as any in the west; and ere long, although we cannot afford the facilities at Nashville, Tennesseeans will have the opportunity of supporting in Tennessee this important branch of industry. The gentleman who opens the yard is said to be one of the best boat-builders in the Union. As an evidence of its truth, some of the finest boats running on the Mississippi, are his handiwork; among others, the magnificent Autocrat. In addition to this, an extensive flour mill, now nearly completed, is about to commence operations, and will make, it is said, 62,000 bbls. of flour annually; creating another large source of wealth to the community. These things speak most favorably for the public spirit of Memphis, and indeed I find on all sides evidence that her citizens are determined, by the liberal views they take of things, to make Memphis one of the first cities in the West—and the city already feels the beneficial result of these views. In 1840, I am told, Memphis had a population of from three to four thousand; the census recently taken, shows a population of 12,000—and although no prophet, I venture the prediction that 1860 will show a population more than double this number.

* * * * * * * *

Since writing the above, I learn that a large cotton manufactory has just been erected here, and will go into operation very shortly, giving employment to a large number of operatives. Why cannot we chronicle such an event in Nashville? Urge our citizens to wake up to the importance of these things, for if they sleep much longer, every city in this country will outstrip us, and upon ourselves must rest the fault.—*Cumberland.*

5.—COMMERCE OF BALTIMORE, 1850.

EXPORTS OF LEADING ARTICLES.

Fish, dried, qtls.	5,450	Indian Meal, bbls.	38,820
Fish, pickled, bbls.	997	Tal. Candles, lbs.	562,491
Whale Oil, gals.	9,222	Ada. Candles, lbs.	11,125
Lard Oil, gals.	22,186	Soap, lbs.	113,921
Sperm Candles, lbs.	51,511	Tobacco, manufactured, lbs.	175,437
Tar and Pitch, bbls.	4,558	Nails, lbs.	147,607
Beef, bbls.	11,972	Manufactures of Iron	$58,294
Pork, bbls.	22,746	Refined Sugar, lbs.	65,096
Bacon, lbs.	5,259,713	Cotton Goods	$260,319
Lard, lbs.	937,472	Paper, Books and Stationery	$4,579
Butter, lbs.	347,960	Wheat, bush.	40,203
Cheese, lbs.	193,974	Potatoes, bush.	2,414
Indian Corn, bush.	430,638		

There is a growing increase of the commerce of the port of Baltimore with the South. This result is attributed to the agitation of the slavery question at the North, by which the southern merchants are deterred from trading with the northern cities. Commenting upon these facts, the Clipper says:

"This is a great increase within one year, and exhibits the feeling which prevails at the South. Our merchants have no doubt anticipated, and prepared themselves for this change of trade in the South, by an enlargement of their stocks of goods; but there is one more object to be effected by Baltimoreans, and that is to establish a regular line of packets between this city and Liverpool. This would attract the whole southern custom to our port. We know that this important subject has received the attention of the merchants of Baltimore, and that a memorial to Congress has been presented. Direct importations of goods from Europe would make Baltimore, as a market for southern custom, all that could be desired; and we cannot see any reason why government should not patronize a Southern as well as a Northern line of packets, as auxiliary to the Post Office Department."

6.—GALVESTON AND TEXAS.

"While steamships of 1,200 to 1,500 tons, and sail vessels of 1,000 tons, can enter the port of Galveston, and take our produce to a foreign market, it is hardly probable that it will ever be sent circuitously by rail-roads, one thousand miles to Charleston, or by water still more circuitously and still further, to the same port, and that, too, merely for re-shipment. This is manifestly contrary to the natural course of trade. With the exception of a few counties bordering on Red River, the exports of Texas must find their outlet at our own ports; and the day is not far distant when they will be sufficient to establish a direct foreign trade by regular lines of packets. Even with the late dismemberment, we have still a territory as large as Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama and Georgia, together, and the amount of waste or unproductive land, we believe, is less; while we have a larger amount of rich alluvial bottom lands than all the other Southern States. Texas is capable of producing more sugar than all the balance of the Union, including all the recent acquisitions along the Pacific coast. We have many millions of acres of land of inexhaustible fertility within the latitude adapted to the growth of cotton; while an extensive region in the upper part of our state has been proved to be an excellent wheat country, and well adapted to other small grains. For stock raising and wool growing, Texas is, probably, unequalled by any other country. While, therefore, our state is as large as the four Southern States above named, it is certainly capable of producing fully as much for exportation, as all those states together. Nor will it be many years, with the present rapid ingress of immigrants, before our exports will give employment to a very large amount of shipping."

7.—COMMERCE OF SAN FRANCISCO.

Although we have not been led off very far, at any time, by the California fever, nor have ever contemplated any Argonautic expedition in search of its golden fleece, we cannot forbear an extract from the Pacific News, showing some of the extraordinary things in that country.

The receipts of bullion, from the Atlantic States, seeking investment, in 1850, was $1,722,600.

AMOUNT OF GOLD DUST SHIPPED FROM JANUARY 1ST TO DECEMBER 30TH, 1850.

Month of January	$448,444
February	734,351
March	1,250,000
April	2,201,000
May	1,731,863
June	2,669,045
July	3,020,000
August	5,282,880
September	918,000
October	4,598,461
November	5,337,539
December	1,250,000
Total amount for the year	$29,441,583

This statement is a sufficient answer to the too often expressed opinion that the mines were becoming exhausted, and that California must prove a failure by-and-by. For the two past seasons the summer months have produced the greatest amount of gold, the wet diggings being worked then to a greater extent than the dry. This accounts for the fact that the shipment in the month of August exceeded that of any other month in the year.

Fixing the amount of gold exported, and which was regularly shipped and entered for the period named above, at $30,000,000 in round figures, and add to it an estimate of $12,000,000, as having gone forward in private hands, and $6,000,000 retained for circulation, and the aggregate shows the enormous sum of $48,000,000—an amount exceeding one-third the total *of all the products of the*

United States exported during the fiscal year, ending June 30, 1850, and nearly one-third the amount of imports; $12,000,000 more than the exports of the state of New-York or Louisiana; $35,000,000 more than Alabama; $38,000,000 more than South Carolina; $40,000,000 more than Massachusetts or Maryland; $41,000,000 more than Georgia; and $43,000,000 more than Pennsylvania. And, while viewing this statement, it will at the same time be borne in mind, that the states which show the largest amount of exports are those which possess the advantage of having ports situated on the seaboard, and which do the carrying trade of states more remotely located. The eight states above enumerated, in fact do the labor of transporting to foreign ports, not only their own products, but those of the remaining twenty-two.

For the time included in the period for which all our statistics are made up—viz.: the twelve months past—there have entered our harbor, from all foreign ports, 1,743 vessels. During the same period the number of vessels which cleared was 1,461. The vessels arriving, have landed upon our shores 35,333 males, and 1,248 females. The number which have left by sail vessels and steamers, during the same time, 26,593 males, and 8 females.

The report of the Secretary of the Treasury, on commerce and navigation, for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1849, shows the number of clearances from the port of New-York, to have been but little more than twice that of San Francisco, for the year ending December 31, 1850; and the number of arrivals at that port—the same periods compared—to have been 268 less than twice the amount. As compared with New-Orleans, the difference in favor of San Francisco is, in clearances 330, and in arrivals 645. When the comparison is made with Philadelphia, we find the difference still greater in favor of San Francisco—being in clearances 922, and in arrivals 1,137. The same would be the result were the comparison made with any of the seaports in the United States.

The total value of merchandise received by foreign vessels, from November 21, 1849, to September 30, 1850, was $3,351,962 65. The tonnage of the vessels was 151,604.

The total value of merchandise received during the same period, in domestic vessels, was $797,275 10; the tonnage of the vessels, 82,949.

Neither time nor space will permit us to enumerate in detail, many kinds of trade which are followed with satisfactory success in our midst, and which form no small item in the trade of California. In addition to what has already been mentioned, we will add that San Francisco, with a population of over 35,000, sustains *seven* daily papers; while New-York, numbering *half a million*, can boast only *double* that number! We have eight express companies, the principal ones being Adams & Co. and J. W. Gregory; over *sixty* brick buildings, where six months ago there was not one; eight or ten first-class hotels, at the head of which stands the "Union," (just erected by Selover & Co., and under the management of Isaac M. Hall;) the "St. Francis;" "Delmonico's;" the "Revere;" and the "National."

But a few months since, the boundaries, even of San Francisco, were hardly defined with sufficient definiteness to guide the inquirer in his search. Now we have *one hundred and seven miles* of street laid out, one quarter of which is built upon and occupied, and over seven miles of it substantially planked, and most of that distance properly sewered. We have now a semi-monthly mail, where a year ago it was only an occasional one—reaching our shores *now* and *then*, and half the time not as often! One marine insurance company has already been formed, with a capital of $500,000, and another is in progress of organization.

8.—VALLEY OF THE COLORADO—TEXAS.

"There is, perhaps, no portion of our state more rapidly developing its resources than the valley of the Colorado; and certainly none whose capabilities are less circumscribed or more varied. There is no department of agricultural employment which may not be here successfully and profitably pursued. The rich soil and salubrious climate of the upper portion of this valley have within the last two years attracted a vast influx of population and industry, the influence of which has been felt in the increased prosperity of our people, and seen in the improved and flourishing condition of our country. In 1845, Austin and the surrounding

country was but one remove from a desolation; scourged continually by Indian irruptions, there was not even in its very streets security for life or property. Only from that period can we date the commencement of any thing like real and permanent prosperity, and in that time, perhaps, no portion of the world has attained so high a degree of permanent prosperity without a solitary commercial or agricultural facility, the only means of transportation being by wagons, a distance of nearly two hundred miles, and for more than half the year over roads almost impassable. Were the condition of things otherwise, what might we not reasonably hope to realize?

"The mind of no man, however sanguine, is prepared to believe how wonderful the effect upon this country would be of a regular steamboat communication with the gulf. Its adaptabilities unascertained, its capabilities of production as yet imperfectly developed, its other resources only known to be abundant and various, would all be brought into immediate and profitable employment, so soon as reliable facilities are created to render labor profitable and the investment of capital safe. To take one year with another, it is our candid opinion that there is no better cotton country on the globe than this. The high price which this product now commands, and the safe assumption that it never can materially decline, from the fact that there is only a narrow belt around the earth in which it can be produced, must render a country fertile, salubrious and situated as this, second to none in agricultural wealth and importance, so soon as a cheap and convenient transportation can be had for our produce; but now without any facilities, except the most onerous and expensive, we are poverty-stricken in the very midst of every element of wealth."

AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT.

1.—BRITISH COMPETITION IN COTTON.

The following view of this subject is taken by a leading London journal:

The supply of raw cotton for our manufactures is every day becoming a subject of greater interest and anxiety in this country; and it is really extraordinary—where cotton is known to grow almost spontaneously in so many regions of the earth, where so many soils and climates are suited to its cultivation—that we should still be dependent upon a small portion of the United States for the greater part of the supply which we require. It is strange that neither Southern nor Western Africa have ever been thought of as countries where this shrub could be cultivated to almost an unlimited extent. Only a few days ago, a specimen of the wild cotton plant of Western Africa, which was plucked within fifty yards of the shore, with full bolls, was exhibited in the Exchange-room, at Liverpool. The *Liverpool Journal* says: "The quality is fine, and this specimen shows that there would be no difficulty in cultivating cotton where it was gathered." We quite believe it. We believe in the possibility of growing cotton *ad libitum* in this district of Africa; indeed, we have reason to think that both cotton and coffee are indigenous along the whole line of coast from 15 deg. N. lat. to the equator. In Prince's Island, lat. 1° 40, and in the Island of St. Thomas, which lies under the equator, coffee grows abundantly, and we think it will be found that the climate, which is suitable to the coffee plant, will also grow the cotton shrub. Indeed, the former island produces not only coffee, but sugar and rice.

The pertinacity with which the manufacturers of Lancashire continue to look to India as the only country which can relieve them from their dependence upon the United States, is, in our opinion, injurious to the object they have in view, as it withdraws their attention from other countries where they would have fewer difficulties to contend with than have hitherto met them in India. It is, however, quite time that they looked more extensively abroad, for there are many reasons why their reliance upon America should begin to be on the wane. According to the Liverpool statistics of the cotton trade, which will be found in our journal of last week, it appears that the deficiency of cotton in

that port, compared with the corresponding period of 1849, is estimated at 100,000 bales, and that an equal deficiency exists in Manchester. The *Liverpool Albion*, from the statistics it presents to its readers, comes to the conclusion that we are beginning this year with a considerable deficiency in the known stock of cotton, while at the same time there is a short crop in the United States. It is certain that, as the manufacture of cotton is annually on the increase in America, there will be a greater home demand for the raw material, less of the article disposable for exportation, and, consequently, an enhanced price put upon it in the country. We think it is evident that the present executive of the States, and the party in office there, wish to encourage their own manufactures. Something of this kind is hinted at in the annual statement of the Secretary of the Treasury, which has lately come to hand. In this document the system of *ad valorem* duties is strongly objected to as injurious to domestic industry, and it is recommended as highly necessary that the present rate of duty should be increased on a variety of articles. Whether manufactured cottons will be included in this category remains to be seen.

We would not discourage the manufacturers from looking to India as one country from which they can be supplied with cotton, but we certainly would discourage their looking to it as the only country for this purpose. The report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons, which sat in 1848, to inquire into the growth of cotton in India, leaves everything in doubt and uncertainty. It does, indeed, conclude with a paragraph expressing an opinion, "that under the continued encouragement now afforded by the government of India, and by taking full advantage of all the resources which are still within reach, there may eventually be opened to the manufacturers of this country a large and regular supply of cotton, of a quality largely consumed by the British manufacturer, which will, by giving them additional sources of supply, render them more independent of the failure of crops, and thus have the double effect of equalizing the price of the raw material, and of lessening those fluctuations in the market which have occurred for some years past, and which have acted so injuriously on the energies of our manufacturing population." There is nothing very encouraging in this, particularly when it is known, as the report says, that—"For sixty years past the Court of Directors have taken an interest in this question, and have expended considerable sums in various attempts to stimulate the growth of cotton in the countries subject to their rule." This may be very true, but, at the same time, it is very depressing. Sixty years, and considerable sums, have been almost fruitlessly spent; Americans and American gins have been sent to India; experimental farms have been established there; notwithstanding which, our manufacturers are still without a supply of cotton from that country. "The Court of Directors still adhere to the opinion that the obstacles which are supposed hitherto to have retarded the extension of cotton cultivation in India, may be overcome." We are of the same opinion, but it promises to be a work of time and difficulty, unsuited to the exigencies of the trade, and the anxiety of those engaged in it.

We have said that there are many other countries where cotton may be grown; why, then, wait for the eventuality which is promised by the report of the committee! We should like to see the energies of the manufacturers directed to a country where they would meet with no difficulties, and but little delay; that country is our Australian colonies. In these colonies they have a sphere for action which no other country offers, not even India, to the same extent, and it is a country to which American cultivators of cotton could be easily induced to betake themselves. We believe that the government of India will give every possible encouragement and stimulus to the growth of cotton in that country, but the natives are a people with whom agricultural improvements are of slow growth; nor, in our opinion, are they at all likely to be stimulated by any exertions which our manufacturers can make. In Australia they will have to deal with our own countrymen and our own territory, and we think the rest may be safely left to British energy, aided by British capital: all that is required is to set the machine in motion, when it will be found to work well.

2.—OVER-CROPPING AND CULTIVATING COTTON.

I will now give my mode of preparing land and cultivating cotton, which I have tried for several years. After pursuing different plans, I have fallen back on the old one as the best. About the middle of January or 1st of February, I commence throwing four furrows together with a turning plough—rows, of course, laid off agreeably to the strength of the land; about the last of March, I commence turning out the middles, which makes the ridge complete and new nearly to the top; from the 5th to the 10th of April, I plant, by opening the ridge with a very small scooter, covering with a wooden harrow, which leaves the whole ridge clean and clear of clods. About the time half the seed make their appearance above ground, I put every hand to scraping it out with the hoes. I generally finish in ten days or two weeks at furthest. Meanwhile I work out my corn, and then return to my cotton with turning ploughs, and bar it off; follow with the hoes, chop through, leaving about two stalks in a place, and take all the grass from the drills, the ploughs covering up all in the middles. I then return to my corn, and work it out. By this time, my cotton is large enough to receive dirt. I put the mould board to the cotton, and throw the dirt back, and plough out the middles, following with the hoes; thin it very nearly to a stand, and cover up what grass there may be left in the drill by the ploughs. Thenceforward I manage it according to the season. If dry, I run sweeps until laid by; if wet, I endeavor to keep my ridges well up, with the turning ploughs, so as to keep the water drained from the cotton. About the first of August I top it, wet or dry, which I consider a great advantage, checking the growth of the stalk, causing the forms to stick better, and bolls to mature sooner.

In conclusion, I would suggest to all those pretending to cultivate 18 and 20 acres to the hand, to drop 6 or 8 acres, and sow it in oats for their stock, which will answer a double purpose—resting their land and keeping their mules, cows and year old hogs in good order, (giving them salt) until frost. My oat field is as valuable to me as the same land would be in corn.

I omitted to say, in its place, that in scraping my cotton out with hoes, it gave my team a good resting spell, very much needed about that time.

Yours, &c. E. JENKINS.

Choctaw County, Miss., Jan. 1851.

3.—MELANCHOLY PROOFS OF SOUTHERN DEPENDENCE ON THE NORTH.

What the writer of this paper in the Southern Planter says of Virginia, is true of the whole South. Can we have no brooms, hay or apples, but from beyond the Potomac!

Upon the most of our farms broom corn is assigned the outside row of the corn field, or else is distributed through the "truck patch." It usually receives but little attention—gets only chance workings, and no care in the selection of seed. Indeed, it is oftener than otherwise regarded as the negro's perquisite. The slaves who have gathered it spend a portion of the long nights of winter in working it up into small brooms, bound by white oak "splits," and these, if not sold to the mistress of the farm, are bartered at the nearest grocery. Among the northern people the practice is different. Large bodies of land in the Valley of the Connecticut, the Hudson, and even the famous Genesee wheat region, are appropriated to the growth of broom corn as a field crop. When gathered it is sold to broom makers at so much per pound. They put it into brooms of every shape and description, from the broad long handle floor broom to the finest coat duster. Our worthy Governor, Hon. J. B. Floyd, made an excursion through some of the northern states during the past summer, and he tells us that he was astonished to see the number of acres devoted to broom corn in that cold climate. Even with that disadvantage, however, a profit is made upon the crop, and (what reflects no credit upon our enterprise) we who ought to be sending the article north, annually buy largely from New-York and the New-England States. One of our exchanges, the Harrisburg Republican, says

it is not uncommon for an advertisement to appear with a caption like the following: "*Just received, two hundred corn brooms from the North.*"

The writer then goes on to say:

It is an ascertained fact, that half a million of dollars is yearly paid for brooms imported into Virginia. Are not the James River bottoms as good for raising broom corn as the Connecticut? Won't somebody plant a few acres next spring? The crop is said to be worth fifty to one hundred dollars per acre.

"*Just received, one hundred bales Northern hay.*"

Is it a fact Virginia cannot raise hay to feed her own stock? I have seen, even this dry season, at least three or four tons per acre on land that a very few years since was worth no more than——; in fact, as poor a piece of land as could be found in the state. What crop pays better, at fifteen or twenty dollars per acre?

"*Just received, fifty barrels fine Northern apples.*"

How many thousands are paid annually for fruit, even in Richmond? The world may be challenged to produce a finer climate for fruit of any kind, congenial to climate, than old Virginia, So it may be said for potatoes and hundreds of other articles. The above article is not intended as any reproach on our northern brethren; all praise, on the contrary; and I should be very glad to see them among us, and——*fill it out yourself.*"

4.—ON THE CLASSIFICATION OF SUGAR.

There is an opinion prevalent in certain parts of the planting and commercial community, who are particularly interested in the improvement of the quality of sugar, respecting the effects of the use of bone black in the manufacture of sugar, which we think retards the introduction of that unquestionable improvement. We allude to the impression that unpleasant smell is inseparable from sugar boiled in vacuum pans, after passing through the filters. The smell which is often perceived in such sugar, is, on the contrary, entirely owing to a practice which is becoming too general with planters possessing the various forms of apparatus, of liquoring or syruping the sugurs in tiers, and sometimes in hogsheads, and then shipping without *thoroughly drying it.* The quality of the article in appearance is undoubtedly improved when first made, but within a short time a species of fermentation takes place, of course involving a deterioration in quality, and giving grounds for reports which affect, and if persisted in, must shortly ruin the market for this kind of sugar, No planter who is prepared to dry his sugar thoroughly, by means of drying rooms artificially heated, should syrup his sugar; the proper use of bone black improves the sugar in crystallization, dryness and color. A MERCHANT.

5.—GEOLOGY OF ARKANSAS.

"I hazard nothing in asserting, that the state of Arkansas has greater mineral resources than any other state east of the Rocky Mountains. I do not mean that it has more of everything than any other state—it has less of some things; for instance, it has less coal than Pennsylvania, yet it has more than the whole island of Great Britain. It probably has not as much lead as Wisconsin, but much of it has two or three times the value of Wisconsin lead, on account of the silver it contains. As to iron, there is no state that has it in greater quantity, or of a better quality. Its manganese would supply the wants of the world, as to that article, if there were none any where else. In zinc, it will excel any other state, unless we except New-Jersey. It has more gypsum than all the other states together, so far as is known; and salt is no less abundant than gypsum—it is connected with it. In marble, it does not fall behind any other state; and it contains several very valuable kinds of building materials not found any where else in the Valley of the Mississippi.

But it is not always that valuable minerals or building materials can be rendered at once available, especially in a new country. This is a matter which requires to be studied, as well as the character of the minerals themselves. Some things can be worked to advantage only after a country has acquired such a degree of development as to create a demand for their use. Such is the case, for the most part, with building materials, gypsum, etc."

6.—SHOULD THE SOUTH DIVERSIFY HER PRODUCTS?

A writer in the *Mississippian* communicates the following argument in favor of diversifying the products of the South. He has stated the case rather strongly on the matter of cotton, since, as we believe, in the progress of civilization and growth of commerce, its consumption will very greatly increase, but there can be no doubt of the fact notwithstanding, that there is a tendency to over-production. Even if this were not the fact, our preference would still be for a diversity of labor and employment, which always tends to the production of national independence and power. The arts and pursuits of life are so much dependent upon each other, that they naturally go hand in hand, advancing or declining together. Let the South abandon speedily her present system of *exclusive* agriculture.

The necessity of diversifying the labors of the slave states, is apparent from a consideration wholly distinct from those which have been before urged. The area of the whole of the slave states is 727,234 square miles. Assume the present slave population to be 3,500,000, and that its future increase will be at the same rate that has attended it from 1790, when the first census was taken, until this time, and in less than one hundred years, we shall have 56,000,000 of slaves, that is, a slave population of 77 to each superficial square mile. But when we reflect that this calculation embraces the whole area of the slave states, and that a large portion of the surface is irreclaimable swamp, barren sand hills not fit for cultivation, in the whole amounting to probably one-fourth, we may reasonably assert, that the child is now born, who will see a slave population equal at least to 85 to the square mile, on an average, for all that portion of the slave states suited to agriculture. The slave population, however, will not be equally diffused over the slave states. It is rapidly concentrating on the rice, sugar and cotton states. By the census of 1840, the states of North Carolina, Mississippi, Tennessee, Florida, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Louisiana and Arkansas, contained of slaves 1,527,575. Their entire surface is but 433,802 square miles. The entire slaves of the United States double in a fraction over 22 years. Now let it be supposed that by bringing slaves into the sugar and cotton region, they double in those states in twenty years, we will have in those states at this time 2,291,362. Let it then be supposed that importation into the sugar and cotton states now cease entirely, and also that the period of duplication will be increased to twenty-five years, neither of which suppositions can be realized, and in one hundred years, those states will have a slave population of 36,661,782, or 84 to each square mile. Yet much of this country is swamp, or sand, or hills. The slaves then will be equal at least to one hundred for each square mile of land suited to cultivation. The population of Massachusetts, with all her manufacturing towns and villages, her cities and small farms, does not equal this. Where then, in one hundred years, shall we find space for our increase of white population and employment for our slaves? Can they be employed in the cultivation of cotton as now? Can they be employed in agriculture? Must they not be employed in every pursuit to which their labor can be directed, and must we not commence this division of labor now? Many will say a hundred years ahead, is too far to look. We will take care of ourselves, and let those who come after us take care of themselves. Well, be it so. Let us take care of ourselves.* If we really do so, we shall do all in our power for posterity. How then can we take care of ourselves? *Only by diverting labor from the cultivation of cotton.* In 1835, we produced 1,360,825 bales of cotton, the price was 19 cents per pound, and brought us $103,415,100. The price being high, we from year to year increased its production. In 1839, the crop was 2,177,835 bales, the price gradually fell from the former rate, viz: 19 cents to ten cents, nearly one-half, and the produce of the whole was 87,113,600. Thus, by increasing our crop 817,000, we lessened our income to the extent of $16,301,700. We blindly continued to increase our productions, until we increased the crop to, say 2,500,000 bales, and re-

duced the price to, say 6 cents, which will give 60,000,000 of dollars; by increasing our product 1,140,000 bales beyond the crop of 1835, we reduced our income, or lost 43,400,000 dollars in one year. The cotton statistics show, that from 1835, down to the present day, the larger the crop, the smaller sum does it produce. If we allow that five bales to the hand is a full average, it will take 270,000 hands to produce this 1,400,000 bales, and if the hands will average in value $500, it required, and there was an investment of $13,500,000 in hands alone, exclusive of mules, horses, farming tools, &c., which additional investment, by an increase of production, results in an annual loss of $43,400,000 dollars to the cotton planters. Had they thrown this $13,000,000 into the Mississippi instead of investing it in additional labor for cotton fields, and thereby kept down the excess of production, they would have secured to themselves $43,400,000 per annum, by the higher price of the reduced quantity.

This makes it manifest beyond doubt that the planting of cotton should not be increased—that it should be greatly reduced. If one-third of the labor now directed to cotton raising, should be diverted to the agricultural employments—to the raising of stock, corn, potatoes, turnips, oats, rye, &c., and the making such articles as each planter consumes, and could fabricate for himself, the income from cotton would not be diminished, but would greatly increase, whilst the money paid out by the planters would be less, by millions of dollars annually. But if we proceed a step beyond this, and purchase from our own merchants all such articles as they can supply, and vest a portion of our capital in manufacturing coarse cotton and woollen goods, leather shoes, and the many other things for which we have all the needful material and means, the benefits arising will be speedily felt, to an incalculable extent.

All the foregoing is true, if slaves and slave labor were not on the increase. But slaves increase independent of importations, at a greater rate than one hundred per cent., in each five and twenty years. This being the case, if we do not divert their labor from cotton, and immediately engage extensively and actively in other pursuits, the increase of cotton will proceed at the same rate with the increase of slaves. We have seen that by the increase since 1835, we have reduced the return nearly forty-three and one half millions of dollars per annum. Thirteen years more will give an increase of about fifty per cent. on the present produce, and it is easy to see, that ruin, and speedy ruin, awaits the cotton producer, if he does not appropriate a large part of his capital to other pursuits, and contribute by all the means in his power, to the introduction and prosecution of every branch of industry, to which our soil, our climate, our water power, and our forests invite the enterprising.

Success and eminent success is certain, if we only will it, and proceed to the execution of our purpose with half the zeal and perseverance with which we have prosecuted the cotton planting. Have we not waste land in abundance, suited to the raising of sheep, and they supply mutton for our tables and for the market, and wool for our domestic use for the manufacture of janes, linseys and flannels for our use. Have we not land, and labor, and all the means needful for the raising of corn and oats, and also for Bermuda and other grasses! These will raise our mules, horses, cattle, hogs and poultry—supplying us abundantly with beef and hides, bacon, butter, &c. Have we not forests of oak, and streams of water without limit? These, with the hides of our beeves, now almost wholly lost, will furnish our tanneries with all that is needed for the prosecution of that business, and will not our slaves make tanners? and can they not, when supplied with the materials, make peg, and other shoes? cannot our slaves make ploughs, and harrows, &c.? The New-England States cannot make and send us brick and framed houses, and therefore we have learned that our slaves can make and lay bricks, and perform the work of house joiners and carpenters. In fact we know that in mechanical pursuits and manufacturing cotton and woollen goods, they are fine laborers.

DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES AND PROGRESS.

1.—ANOTHER SOUTHERN MANUFACTURING VILLAGE.

In our January Number we described Prattsville, Alabama; in February, Graniteville, S. C., both thriving manufacturing towns; and are now delighted to add Autaugaville, Ala., to the list:

The company was organized on the 16th of August, 1848, and the capital stock is now $87,000. The size of the factory building is one hundred and fifty feet long, and fifty feet wide; is built of brick, with tin roof, and window and door sills of cast iron. There are 3,000 spindles, 100 looms, 42 cards, with other necessary machinery for spindles.

The fabric manufactured is, osnaburgs, 33 inches wide, weighing 9 ounces to the yard; 7-8 shirting; No. 14 thread, 5 1-4 ounce; cotton yarns, all sizes, from No. 4 to 15.

There are now employed in the factory, 81 operatives—a majority of them females. When all the machinery is in operation, 110 will be required, and the daily product will be 4,000 yards of cloth, or 40 yards per loom.

There is water enough to move double the machinery, at all seasons of the year, but there has been some difficulty in consequence of the water-wheel not having capacity sufficient to run all the machinery. That difficulty, however, is soon to be remedied.

Autaugaville has grown up in the woods during two years past. It now has a population of 350 souls—four mercantile establishments—two churches, and a third is soon to be built, and two good schools. The village is situated some two or three miles from the Alabama River, and about the same distance from Prattville and Vernon, and is rapidly increasing in population and importance.

2.—FACTORY ON THE SEA-SHORE OF MISSISSIPPI OR LOUISIANA.

A writer in the Mississippian, in suggesting Biloxi Bay as an appropriate place for a cotton factory, in which Louisiana and Mississippi might both unite, uses the following arguments, premising that there are already ten saw-mills, a steam-brick manufactory, several brick-yards, an iron foundry, and about fifty sail-vessels and one steamer belonging to the Bay:

The materials for the erection of buildings, &c., for a cotton factory at Biloxi Bay, would be about half the cost of the same articles at a location on the Mississippi River. The best article of plank can be purchased in Biloxi Bay at $8 per thousand. The best article of bricks at $5 per thousand. Where health abounds, labor is always cheap. Much more labor can be performed during the summer months than at New-Orleans, or on the Mississippi River, on account of the invigorating and constant sea-breeze they enjoy at Biloxi Bay. Operatives from the North can be induced to come to Biloxi Bay, until our abundant Creole population could be introduced, and made happy, useful and industrious citizens. Fuel, a very important item in the list of expenses, would be much less than half the price it would cost at New-Orleans. Transportation by steam and sail vessels, would be abundant and cheap. The location at St. Martin's Point, is on the opposite side of the Bay from the thriving village of Biloxi—in the immediate vicinity of the fine and inexhaustible oyster beds. The operatives would be pretty much a community to themselves; at least, they would be free from the epidemics, vices and maladies, which cannot be prescribed against by the forms of law, and which will be consequent upon a location near New-Orleans.

If the citizens of Mississippi, now engaged in planting in the more wealthy portions of the state, would but investigate this subject, they would not allow it to be monopolized by citizens of another state

3.—RIVALRIES OF CHARLESTON AND SAVANNAH.

We clip from the Georgia Sentinel some remarks which will give our readers a further insight into the spirited contest now going on between the emporiums of our gallant sister states of Georgia and Carolina, for the extension of trade and enterprise. In this contest some pretty hard blows are struck on both sides, as we find frequently the case between Boston and New-York, or New-Orleans and Mobile; and were we, in our *neutral* position, to venture a preference one way or the other, there would come a greater clamor about our ears than ever Olympus heard, "what time" the judgment of Paris was pronounced between the rival goddesses:

We cannot remain idle and indifferent spectators of the rivalry between these two cities. They are the only Atlantic ports of any consequence in the cotton states, and for that reason we are interested in all that concerns their welfare; but Savannah is in Georgia, and Charleston in South Carolina, and for that reason we are most interested in all that concerns the welfare of the former. Our motto in this as in other respects, is, "in the South, and for the South—in Georgia, and for Georgia." We are gratified at the evidences of the increasing prosperity of Charleston, and we hope she may soon realize the best wishes of her people; but in a rivalry between her and our own seaport, of course we are with the latter. Apart, however, from all state pride in the matter, we, in this section, have other causes of interest in the growth and prosperity of Savannah. We are soon to be connected with that city by a continuous rail-road communication, and in the ordinary business relations of the two cities, Savannah and Columbus must become better acquainted, and more identified in interest. Nature has done greatly more for Savannah than Charleston, and as soon as her people become aroused to a proper sense of what is due from them, and to them, by the commerce of the country, the question of rivalry will very easily be decided in her favor. In fact, that rivalry now only exists by reason of the singular blindness or indifference, on the part of the people of Savannah, to their own interests and capacities. In energy and enterprise, they have always been behind their Charleston neighbors; and in spite of their pre-eminent natural advantages, unless they awake on the subject of what they can do, and ought to do, they will forever find themselves behind, in importance and prosperity. A glance at the relative positions of the two places on the map of the states of South Carolina, Georgia, Tennessee and Alabama, must at once satisfy every one, that in point of favorable location, every advantage is on the side of Savannah. Take, for instance, the city of Atlanta, the point at which the rail-roads connecting upper Georgia with these seaports, unite, which is 292 miles from Savannah, and 307 miles from Charleston, showing a difference in the distance in favor of Savannah, of 15 miles. To the trade of that place, therefore, and also to the commerce of all that section of country which reaches the Atlantic through that place, Savannah is the most accessible market. All points north, west, and south of Atlanta, will naturally trade at Savannah, provided the mercantile facilities of that city are as great as at Charleston. In other words, the grains and provisions of Northern Georgia, North-Eastern Alabama and Tennessee, and six-tenths of the cotton region of our own state, will find their way to that point, unless its advantages from position are counterbalanced by the want of energy, enterprise and accommodation on the part of her people. That such will be the fact in future, is best demonstrated by facts in the past. The following statistics are taken from the Savannah Republican Price Current, showing the receipts of cotton bales, at the two ports, up to the latest date:

	SAVANNAH.		CHARLESTON.		*Excess.*
1845, Dec.	19.....48,143....	Dec.	12.....72,667.	....30,524.....or....	26 per cent.
1846, "	18.....87,043....	"	11.....125,865.....	38,822.....or....	18 per cent.
1847, "	18.....27,411....	"	10.....41,504.....	14,093.....or....	20 per cent.
1848, "	19.....108,235....	"	14.....144,386.....	36,152.....or....	14 per cent.
1849, "	18.....126,998....	"	13.....137,934.....	10,926.....or....	4 per cent.

Take into account the fact, that the bales received at Savannah are heavier than those received at Charleston, and it will be found that the number of pounds of cotton received at Savannah has been almost, if not quite equal, to the amount at Charleston. Again, we have the following table, showing the number of bales exported from the two places for five years:

	SAVANNAH.	CHARLESTON.	*Excess.*
1845	304,544	421,896	16 per cent.
1846	186,306	268,077	18 "
1847	234,151	347,098	20 "
1848	423,232	297,592	19 "
1849	405,456	462,951	6 "

4.—SOUTHERN PROGRESS.

The Mobile Tribune says:—"James W. Kidd has succeeded in raising nearly a sufficient amount of stock to build a large cotton factory on Loachapaka Creek, some seven miles below the town of Auburn, Alabama, and near the line of the Montgomery and West Point Rail-road. The site, according to the Herald, possesses great beauty, and is, withal, well calculated for extensive manufacturing operations. Superior facilities for shipping goods also exist."

5.—MANUFACTURED TOBACCO.

The receipts of manufactured tobacco at New-York from southern cities, reached, last year, 159,692 packages, and were from the following points:

Richmond	82,766	packages.
Petersburg	69,779	"
Baltimore	3,179	"
Norfolk	2,508	"
Total	159,692	"

THE RECEIPTS IN

1849	117,594	packages.
1848	113,336	"
1847	138,118	"
1840	63,805	"
1839	51,579	"
Total	484,432	"

6.—ARKANSAS COTTON FACTORY.

The Washington (Ark.) Telegraph states, that a cotton factory is about to be established at Van Buren, in that state. Already stock to the amount of $31,000 has been taken, and the work will be commenced in a few weeks. The building is to be of brick, 70 feet by 40 feet, two stories high, and will contain 1,530 spindles, and 20 looms. This is the first enterprise of the kind in the state. This is the way for the South to make war upon the North—better than forty South Carolina arsenals.

7.—STAINED GLASS FACTORY AT CHARLESTON.

A stained glass factory at the South, except in our city, where one, as yet in its infancy, but commencing under favorable auspices, has entered the lists for competition. The proprietors, Mess. Samson & Adams, are natives of Charleston, and the latter gentleman, we are informed, has been connected with stained glass works in New-York. They have already numerous orders to fill for public and private edifices, among which are three churches in this state, Odd Fellows' Hall, corner of King and Liberty streets, and the elegant mansion of our fellow-citizen, George Robertson, Esq., corner of South Bay and Meeting-street. The last two are expected to be supplied in the course of the ensuing week. As the Odd Fellows' Hall will shortly be publicly dedicated, those who have a taste for this beautiful branch of art, may there have an opportunity to inspect a specimen of Charleston work, on which the manufacturers say that they are willing to risk

their reputation and claims to patronage. They promise to turn out as good work and as cheap, as any to be procured elsewhere, and appear more solicitous to show what can be done, in this novel branch of business, than to exact extravagant prices for their labor.

8.—TEXAS—HER NATURAL ADVANTAGES—WOOL AND FACTORIES.

The resources of Texas are almost without end, and in the hands of her present population, we have an abiding hope that the best use will be made of those resources, and that Texas, one of the latest, is destined to become one of the brightest stars of the American Constellation. The following interesting article upon Texas wool and factories, we extract from the New-Orleans Picayune:

The western section of Texas is admirably adapted to the purposes of the wool-grower. It is destined to be, in this respect, a formidable rival to the northern farmers. Particularly will this occur in the region back of the low lands on the gulf coast. Even on these, however, where experiments have been made on a small scale, and the flocks partly of the poor Mexican breeds, fed almost entirely on the sea-weed thrown upon the beach, we know that the wool, when sent to the New-York market, was pronounced equal to the average quality of the article received from the northern folds, and brought very high prices.

Western Texas possesses every natural requisite to place it, as a wool-growing country, on an equal footing with New-York, Vermont, and other states. The high-rolling country—the purity of the air—the continual supply of excellent nourishment in the musquito grass—the number of small streams, and above all, the absence of deep snows and chilling blasts of northern winters,—are her qualifications in this respect. The climate is not too warm, either, by which the fineness of the wool might be injured; there is sufficient bracing quality in the atmosphere to preserve the pristine vigor, even of animals imported from colder climates; and little care and less expense are necessary to keep the largest flocks of sheep in the best condition.

Indeed, this is the case with all kinds of stock in Texas, but chiefly in the western part of the state. Horses, cattle, &c., left to run free in the prairies and valleys, grow to the largest and most vigorous dimensions, and in the depth of winter present the appearance of stable-fed and well-groomed animals.

We have been led into this train of remarks by meeting an announcement in a late San Antonio paper, of a new and extensive woolen factory soon to be established within two or three miles of that city, on a branch of the San Antonio River. Woolen fabrics, of a substantial character, are to be manufactured: jeans, kerseys, blankets, satinets, &c. A substantial stone building has been erected for the purpose; the machinery has arrived, and consists of one Pekin and two carding-machines, of ninety spindles each, with three power-looms. The persons at the head of the enterprise are Messrs. Harper & Martin, of San Antonio, one of whom is stated to be an old hand at the business. It is the first establishment of the kind west of the Colorado, and will give a powerful impetus to the wool-growing business and the prosperity of Western Texas. The San Antonio River is surpassed by none of its size in its water-power for mills and factories. The wheat-raising-and-wool-growing capabilities of the country surrounding it will doubtless soon lead to numerous trials of its velocity and volume of water for factory purposes.

Texas begins well, and has taken the right track. Let her avail herself properly of her great natural advantages—let her cultivate her own manufactures, and there will be no necessity for secession. She will acquire power by learning to depend upon herself, and with power her rights will be respected.

Let the whole South follow upon the same path. Western Virginia, by the way, ought to surpass Vermont as a wool-growing country. May we not hope that the time is near when she will avail herself of her great advantages in this respect?

DEPARTMENT OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1.—RAIL ROAD MOVEMENTS IN NEW-ORLEANS.

The visit of Gov. Jones, President of the Memphis Rail-Road, to New-Orleans, had the effect of stimulating a very large subscription to the work on the part of our citizens. Among the largest subscribers were James Robb, Esq., Fearn, Donnegan & Co., John Williams, Pickett, Perkins & Co., J. P. Benjamin, etc. Mr. Robb took the liberal sum of $30,000, which is in keeping with his accustomed liberality, and which places him at this time far ahead of any of our citizens in substantial enterprise.

Gov. Jones addressed a very crowded meeting of the citizens of New-Orleans upon the general importance of rail-road movements; and the following resolutions were introduced by J. D. B. De Bow, and unanimously adopted:

SOUTHERN AND WESTERN RAIL-ROAD CONVENTION AT NEW-ORLEANS.

Whereas the extension of rail-road enterprises in the southern and western states, in tending to the development of their resources and power, and in strengthening the bond of union which exists between them, is a subject in which the people of New-Orleans feel the deepest interest, and in carrying out which they will most cheerfully co-operate:

Resolved, That this meeting heartily approve of a convention of the southern and western states, which has been suggested in different quarters, for the promotion of our rail-road enterprises and other kindred purposes, and respectfully suggest the city of New-Orleans as an appropriate place for the meeting of this convention:

Resolved, That it be recommended to the General Council of the city, to take such steps as will, with the consent of our sister states, insure the assembling of such convention at as early a day as possible.

2.—NEW-ORLEANS AND JACKSON RAIL-ROAD.

A convention of the friends of this work from Mississippi and Louisiana is appointed to take place in New-Orleans, the third Wednesday of the present month. The committee in charge of the matter adopted the following resolution:

Resolved, That the Councils of the three Municipalities of New-Orleans and Lafayette be requested to appoint twenty citizens from each corporation, and a committee of five members of each Council, as delegates to the proposed convention.

They recommend the legislature to amend the City Charter so as to enable her to subscribe $500,000 in the road. We know not if this can be done, but do think unless property holders be compelled, they will never contribute, in proportion to their means, to the growth of the city. Yet we are already, God knows, overtaxed and burthened beyond all example and without equivalent.

"But the Rail-Road to Jackson, Mississippi, is the one which your Committee is more particularly instructed to report upon, and which, from its immediate effects, must be of so much importance to the wealth and commerce of our city. And the small amount for the city to raise, in comparison to the immense advantages to be derived therefrom, jointly claims the largest portion of public attention. This road must open a trade to a country having a population of over 200,000, and an area of over 9,000,000 acres. The effect of bringing such a population in daily communication with our city, would at once be felt, not only in the great increase of trade, but in the advanced value of real estate. It would soon convert the waste lands of Louisiana and Mississippi, through which it is contemplated to pass, to a garden, to minister to our wants, and instead of receiving our poultry, and those things necessary to our daily consumption, burdened with a long and expensive transportation, we would receive them from our neighbors along this road much better, and at a reduced cost. The expense of living in the

city would be greatly diminished, and as you diminish the expenses of living, you not only increase the comfort of the laborer, but his ability to pay his landlord remunerating rents. Whilst these happy results must be the immediate effect of this great enterprise, its future influence will be much more extended—it will be the connecting link, which must unite our city with those lines of improvement that are now extending themselves from the Atlantic to the Mississippi, and these lines, then, instead of diverting the trade from New-Orleans, must pour along this road into our city a full tide of wealth. It is but natural that there should be much solicitude felt for the speedy completion of this road. The Legislature of Mississippi has granted a most liberal charter, and we are assured by Mississippi, that if we can make this road to the state line, that she will complete it to Jackson. Thus by an expenditure of some 5 or $600,000, on the part of the citizens of New-Orleans, this important improvement can be secured. In carrying this road to the state line, three different routes have been discussed, the old Nashville Road route, the Madisonville route, and a route along lake Maurepas. If the old Nashville route be chosen, it will be necessary to have two expensive bridges, between lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain, and must pass through about 37 miles of country, totally devoid of improvements, and for the most part, swampy ground. Therefore your committee do not deem it necessary to refer particularly to this route. The route via. Madisonville, in consequence of the favorable character of the country, to the state line, has many warm and able advocates. But your committee deem the navigation of the lake a serious objection to this route. The transhipment of produce, as it entails delay and expense, must always be prejudicial to any line of improvements, and your committee are inclined to think, that the advantages resulting from the favorable character of the country, are more than counterbalanced by the disadvantages of the lake navigation.

"The route passing west of Lake Maurepas is free from this objection, as well as the objection raised against the old Nashville route. By those well acquainted with the country, it is said that a good way can be obtained by running up the metairie ridge to the river, skirting thence along the rear of the plantations, until you come to some point west of Lake Maurepas, and passing around the lake, cross the Amite and Tickfaw rivers, and keeping on the lake lands that divide the Tickfaw and Tangipaho, until you strike the high lands, in the parish of St. Helena. This line will be some thirty miles longer that that via. Madisonville, but this is more than compensated by the avoidance of transhipment, and passing through a country every mile of which would be a paying road. This route occupying nearly a central position in the eastern parishes, would command the trade of the whole, whilst the road via. Madisonville would receive the trade of not more than three parishes.

"With the information now before your committee, they are disposed to give this route the preference; being the cheapest, the most expeditious, and extending great facilities to the country. But they are deeply sensible of the necessity of having correct information before any particular route be selected. This information can only be obtained by an actual survey, and your committee would therefore respectfully recommend as the first thing necessary to carry out this great enterprise, that the sum of $2000 be appropriated by the cities of New-Orleans and Lafayette, (each Municipality and Lafayette paying its pro rata) and placing it under the control of the present "*Joint Committee*," to be expended in having such surveys made, as may be necessary to a proper determination of the most eligible route—as the state of Mississippi has appropriated this sum, it is but just and proper that the cities of New-Orleans and Lafayette should subscribe a like sum."

3.—BRANDON, MISS., RAIL-ROAD.

Amount of Receipts and Expenditures on the Southern Rail-Road, from 18th of March, 1850, to 13th January, 1851.

	Receipts.	Exp.		Receipts.	Exp.
March	$5652.48	$ 575.25	September	3515-25	1908.65
April	485.43	1430.34	October	695·81	2796.23
May	2000.00	4460.61	November	1297.27	1524.87
June	9003.93	9301.20	December	1524.94	528.85
July	307·56	1629.49	January, 1851.	1359.53	645.33
August	2493.93	1196.65			
				$28,346.13	$26,039.37

4.—SOUTHERN RAIL ROAD TO THE PACIFIC.

The first link in the chain of a southern route to the Pacific ocean, is a road from Memphis to Little Rock: this, as a *local* work, is one of the deepest importance to Arkansas, Memphis and New-Orleans. The second link in the chain is a road from Little Rock by the valley of the Washita to Lagrange on Red River; and this by a connection with Natchez, will, as a local improvement, be found a most important road to Arkansas, Louisiana, Natchez and New-Orleans. The third link in this chain might be carried out, now that Texas has funds to do so, by a road from the waters of Galveston Bay running due north to the thirty-third degree of latitude, and thence, by an easy bend, to a junction with the Little Rock road, at or near the Red River.

The three roads indicated here, will, independent of the main stems, give the two latter of them their local character, form a continuous chain of road to a point nearer to the Pacific than is the western border of Missouri by several hundred miles. Each of these, then, at the same time that they all form an unbroken line running from Memphis towards El Passo, is, in its local character, a *whole* measure; and, independent of its connection with the other two, is a self-sustaining work. The Memphis and Little Rock road will derive its support frem the traffic between its termini: the Little Rock and Natcnez road—having in reality the levee of New-Orleans for the southern terminus—will derive its support from the valley of the Washita and the valley of Red River: the Lagrange and Galveston Bay road running westward for a considerable distance, and then bending due south towards the Gulf of Mexico, will not only answer the purpose of a chain of posts about the settlement within it, but by the traffic of this country along its route, build up a commercial city on the shores of Galveston Bay.

5.—CHARLESTON AND HAMBURG RAIL-ROAD COMPANY.

The Annual Report of Henry W. Connor, President of the company, is before us. Receipts, 1850, $912,720; management, $384,040; profit, $528,679, or $339,638, after interest, &c. paid. Two dividends of 3 per cent. each declared, leaving a balance of $165,088 24. But for fortuitous circumstances, the gross income, it is supposed, would have reached $1,000,000. The debt of the company has been reduced in the year from $3,515,507 to $3,173,668. 58½ miles of old road has been relaid in the year with new iron, five new locomotives have been added, five passenger, one baggage, and 137 freight cars. The company has begun to grade the new route intended to obviate the inclined plane at Aikin.

Of the receipts by the company, the amount in freight was $593,356 78, passage, $272,383 37, mails, $40,307 23, other sources, $6,672 87, total, $912,720 25.

"It leaves the old road near Mrs. Schwartz, at lower Aikin, and running to the left, crosses the present plane about 900 feet from its summit, and intersects the old road again near the Graniteville station, making in its whole distance 29,800 feet, equal to 5 2 3d miles, being 1800 feet, or a little over one-third of a mile shorter than the present road. The route is a straight line for five miles, with the exception of a curvature of 1¼ inches in 50 feet at the lower end, and another of 700 feet on a level, near Mrs. Schwartz, where the radius is 2000 feet. The grade is 52 8-10 feet to the mile, and the estimated cost $110,000. The period stipulated in the contract for the completion of this work, is from the 1st April to the 1st July next. An efficient force of 130 hands has been at work on it since August last, and the progress already made in the work warrants the expectation that the contractors will be up to the time."

6.—MEMPHIS AND CHATTANOOGA RAIL-ROAD.

At one end of this road, Charleston, we find it advocated as greatly to the advantage of that city, and at the other end, as advantageous to New-Orleans! The truth is, if the road be not built, Charleston will inevitably take the trade; but query, if the road will save it to New-Orleans? We are willing to try the experiment and do something. It should be the aim of New-Orleans to let no road penetrate the valley without reaching the river.

The road is to run from Memphis to La Grange, Tenn., on an old grade constructed several years ago; from La Grange to Tuscumbia; from Tuscumbia to Decatur, taking in the line of the Tennessee valley road; from Decatur to Huntsville; from Huntsville through Jackson county to an intersection with the Nashville and Chattanooga road, on or near Crow Creek. The portion of the road from Memphis to La Grange, will be put under contract immediately, and is to be finished in one year—there being no legal impediment to its immediate construction. The time of letting the contracts on the rest of the road will depend on the rapidity with which the remaining stock shall be taken up. The President and Directors are sanguine that this will speedily be done. By the Charter, 2½ millions of stock must be subscribed before the road can be put under contract. We understand that the amount already subscribed is about two millions, leaving a half million to be taken up before the road can be put under contract, and another half million for its entire completion.

After showing that by the Tehuantepec route, Memphis will be but 13 days and 10 hours from San Francisco, and by the European and North American railway from London but 10 days, (the estimated time from New-York to London being 7 days and 12 hours,) Mr. Garnett continues:

But let us examine a little more closely into the line between Memphis and New-York. There is certainly no route, now traveled, between these points, which is not longer, by more than 400 miles, than that by way of your road. An examination of the map will satisfy any one that there are natural difficulties which will prevent a shorter line from ever being made.

Some idea may be formed of the directness of this line, by the fact that, should the shortest line be adopted, the variation in latitude between the most northern and the most southern point on any part of the line between Chattanooga and Memphis, will be less than 30 miles: and between Richmond and the farthest southern point of this line of roads, the difference of latitude will be only 2¾ degrees.

There is no portion of this line which is not chartered, and there are but 30 miles between your road and New-York which are not now in progress of construction. This 30 miles is between Chattanooga and Cleaveland, on the East Tennessee and Georgia Rail-road. A Charter was obtained for this road, but no company has been organized under it. Every Rail-road company in Tennessee is interested in its construction, and will, at a proper time, take steps to forward it. The proper plan would be, to make it as a branch to the East Tennessee and Georgia road. The work of this company has progressed so far as to insure its completion. The next link in this chain is the East Tennessee and Virginia road This work is in progress, but will require the fostering care of the legislature, and will certainly receive that aid, as it is so clearly the interest of the two most important companies of Middle and West Tennessee to aid all lines from Chattanooga to any part of the Atlantic coast.

The roads through Virginia, on this great line, are either finished or in rapid progress, and will complete the system. The great necessity for this line of roads may be strikingly illustrated by the fact that, although it is only 435 miles from Lynchburg to Chattanooga, the traveler will now find it best to go 1000 miles to get from one of those points to the other.

All the roads, now proposed, in the vicinity of the Memphis and Charleston road, will act as feeders. The Mobile and Ohio road is 470 miles in length, and will cross this nearly at right angles. Supposing it to be 180 miles from Cairo and 290 miles from Mobile to the point where the two roads intersect, it will then be, from the junction of the Mississippi and Ohio at Cairo, to Philadelphia, 72 miles nearer, by your road, than by the Pittsburg route. Any travel from Mobile, destined for the eastern cities, would come up to the Memphis and Charleston road to go eastward, as the nearest and most expeditious route.

The Nashville and Chattanooga rail-road is another feeder for your road. The travel from Nashville and a large portion of Middle Tennessee, destined for Memphis and New-Orleans, will come down to your road at the point of junction between the two.

Enough has been said to prove that, as a line of travel, this will certainly be the most important in the Union. This alone would make it a profitable road. But, as a freight road also, it will occupy the highest rank. It may be assumed, as an established truth, that any road of this length, passing through a rich coun-

try, will support itself. Now, this road, for its entire length, does pass over a country which cannot be excelled in fertility. There are but fifty miles of poor land on the whole road. Even the poorest land on this road will compare favorably with any land on some of the most flourishing roads in this country.

From the report of the engineer, Charles F. M. Garnett, Esq., we extract:

"As a line of travel, the Memphis and Charleston Rail-road possesses an importance which can scarcely be too highly estimated. Without concert of design, in fact without even the knowledge, on the part of the different projectors, of what each other was doing, there has been a system of rail-roads laid out, which when completed, may be called emphatically the highway of nations. Much of this system is already completed, and every link in the great chain is now under regular organization and in rapid progress. Four years will not elapse before the greater part, if not the whole, will be in full operation. There are now, finished and in process of construction, rail-roads, forming one unbroken line, from Memphis to Boston—and this line may be called *practically* straight. It is in fact the shortest line on which a road could be constructed between those points, the natural features of the country not admitting a shorter one. It is truly wonderful that the merits of this route should have been so long unknown to the public, for nature herself seems to have marked it out. Here is a line nearly straight, passing through the centre of the Union, on which the mountains have been levelled, as if by design. Though this line crosses all the mountain ranges, it encounters no grade, exceeding 68 feet per mile, and it is only on the Virginia and Tennessee Rail-road that this rate of ascent is used. The line generally follows natural valleys, where the grades are gentle and the work light. From Memphis to Lynchburg, a distance of 750 miles, the whole cost of constructing a road, of the most substantial character, and fully equipping it, will not reach $15,000 per mile, although 500 miles of that distance traverse a mountainous region. If this great line had its termini in Memphis and Boston, it might well be called a national work. But this is not all. There are two schemes recently put on foot, at the extreme points of this line, which must add greatly to its importance. One is the plan of a canal across the isthmus of Tehuantepec, which is now exciting much interest in New-Orleans; the other is the 'European and North American Rail-way,' which may date its birth from a convention held in Portland, Maine, on the 31st of July last."

7.—NASHVILLE, CHATTANOOGA AND CHARLESTON RAIL-ROAD.

From the late Annual Report of V. K. Stevenson, Esq., we learn that the present amount, and distribution of the capital, and the amounts paid in, are as follows:

	CAPITAL.		PAID IN.
Subscription of Nashville	$500,000	Individuals	$447,368 57
" Charleston	500,000	Nashville	500,000 00
" Georgia R. R.	250,000	Murfreesboro'	30,000 00
" Murfreesboro'	30,000	Charleston	248,000 00
" Individuals	780,765	Interest, &c.	7,963 36
" State Bonds	500,000		
	$2,560,765		$1,233,332 13

The total expenditure, $1,026,937. The grading of 43 miles is completed, and in the course of the present year it is expected 70 miles of road will be finished. Whole distance from Nashville to the Tennessee River, 123½ miles. We extract from Mr. Stevenson's report the following view of the future of the road, in relation to the southern seaboard:

Before closing this Report, your Directors deem it not out of place to offer a few remarks as to the probable prospect for business and profit on your road. The object with the friends of internal improvement in the South—one of vital importance to the whole southern section of the confederacy, inasmuch as it is one means of securing the South a real, permanent independence—is to effect a safe, speedy, certain and uninterrupted communication between the valley of the Mississippi and the Atlantic. Various fruitless attempts have been made to secure this desirable object; but it was for your road to pierce the hitherto impassable barrier of the Cumberland Mountain, and open to the produce of the rich valley of the Missis-

sippi, a free passage to the waters of the Atlantic. In order to illustrate more fully the advantages of a system thus far so happily commenced, we think we cannot do better than to compare the distances between some suitable point on the Mississippi, and various points on the Atlantic coast. Cairo, at the confluence of the Mississippi and Ohio, is the nearest point—it is at the head of perpetual navigation, beyond all interruption, either from ice in winter or low water in summer —both of which frequently prevent navigation above that point on the Mississippi and Ohio rivers. It is the great reservoir for all the agricultural products of the north-west—the natural point of convergence for all the rail-roads from New-York, Boston, Philadelphia and Baltimore, as well as from Charleston and the Southern Atlantic ports. Now, what is the distance, and what would be the cost of construction of lines of rail-way from these different cities to this point; and what the progress made by the several Atlantic cities in reaching it? Boston and New-York both have continuous lines of rail-way to the north-eastern end of Lake Erie; Philadelphia and Baltimore have extended their lines westward, but neither has as yet reached the head-waters of the Ohio: and it will cost more to extend any one of these from its western end to Cairo, than the cost of the whole line from Charleston to Cairo. When our road is done, Charleston will be on the Cumberland below obstructions from ice; and if it be desirable to push the road further, there will be but about one hundred and forty miles of road to construct at a cost of about two millions of dollars;—thus completing the entire line from Charleston to Cairo at a cost of less than $15,000,000; whilst the least cost at which any of the more northern competitors for the trade of the valley can reach the same point, will be three times as great, or $45,000,000!—besides this difference in cost, Charleston is almost three hundred miles nearer to this desired point. With these advantages, the line to Charleston will command all the trade she chooses, or is able to carry; and the profit accruing to the stock of our road must be great.

Moreover, the improvement of the Cumberland River by slack-water navigation would cost but about four hundred thousand dollars; and such improvement would enable the boats from the Upper Mississippi and its tributaries, and which now have to tranship their freight at St. Louis, to bring their grain, pork, tobacco, &c., to Nashville, ship them to the seaboard; and in return for the produce thus quickly and economically delivered on the South Atlantic, take back supplies of imported goods to their homes on the Upper Mississippi, Illinois, and other tributaries of the great river.

It seems, therefore, evident to us, that this line of improvement is destined to produce a radical change in the business transactions of the Union; giving, as it will, to the southern states, the carrying trade of the great valley of the West, which has hitherto been monopolized by the northern lines of improvement. Then, if Charleston, as is at present indicated, should assert her proper position as a commercial city, and establish lines of Ocean Steamers to and from the principal ports of Europe, the merchant or planter of the Mississippi Valley need go no farther than the "Emporium of the South" to ship his produce, or receive his imported cargo.

8.—CONNECTION OF NEW-ORLEANS AND NEW-YORK.

MOBILE AND GIRARD RAIL-ROAD.

The Commissioners of this important enterprise have lately visited New-Orleans, and received from our citizens a very large subscription to their stock. When this route is finished, New-Orleans and New-York will be seventy-six hours apart, as thus:

	Miles.	Hours.
New-Orleans to Mobile, (steamer)	160	10
Mobile to Girard, opposite Columbus, Geo., rail-road, (to be built)	220	11
Girard to Fort Valley, (in construction)	71	3½
Thence to Macon, (built)	25	1½
Macon to Augusta, (built)	160	8
Augusta to Branchville, (built)	73	3½
Branchville to Manchester, (built)	46	2½
Manchester to Wilmington, (to be built)	143	7½
Wilmington to New-York, (built)	594	29½
	1497	76½

The length of this road is 238 miles, but the definite location will probably reduce it to 230 miles.

Cost of road formation, which includes grading, draining and bridging, estimated at $1,472,000.

Cost of the superstructure, wood and iron, $1,159,616.

Equipments for the road, including machinery, cars, station-houses, shops, &c., $300,000.

Aggregate cost of all, complete, will be $2,931,816, and the average cost per mile, $12,000.

The report goes on to estimate the annual business and revenues of the road which are thus detailed:

Fifty thousand through-passengers at $7	$350,000
Twenty thousand way-passengers at $3 50	70,000
Mail	50,000
Seventy-five thousand bales of cotton, at $1 25	93,750
Merchandise and groceries	200,000
Lumber and miscellaneous products	20,000
Gross receipts	$783,750
Expenses 40 per cent. on receipts	313,500
Net profits	$470,250

Which is equivalent to 16 per cent. per annum on the capital stock.

"The traveler from New-Orleans will not hesitate in availing himself of this direct line of rail-road, in preference to the meanderings of a river with its dangers, delays and uncertainties. If he does not regard the time lost in fogs and upon sand-banks, his care for personal safety will not fail to remind him of the fires, explosions, and other disastrous accompaniments to western navigation; and to whichever point in the great segment radiating from Nashville to Savannah he may be destined, he will take his departure from the Gulf upon the Girard Rail-Road. So, also coming South—by whatever route the great tide of through-travel may commence its flow, it must eventually set upon our line—whether it comes by Savannah, by Charleston, by Wilmington and Manchester, by Raleigh, or (leaving the coast still farther) by the lines of the Virginia Valley and East Tennessee—come as it may, it must find an outlet by this rail-road—the main trunk towards which they all concentrate. So long as expedition and economy are consulted by the Postmaster-General and the traveling public, our proposed rail-road will command a monopoly of the through mail and travel.

"Under existing arrangements, a traveler leaving Mobile on Sunday, at 5 o'clock, P.M., reaches Augusta, Geo., on the following Friday, at 3 o'clock, A.M. Upon the completion of the rail-road between Montgomery and Atlanta, he would be able to reach Augusta on Thursday, at 6 o'clock, A.M.; and that is the best he can ever hope to do on the upper route, unless, as very few do and can, he consents to be jolted through 160 miles of staging from Stockton to Montgomery. But, as few are hardy enough to undergo this martyrdom, and many could not be allowed it, it is fair to make comparisons upon the usually traveled route. When the upper route is completed, then it will consume three-and-a-half days in making the journey from Mobile to Augusta. By the Girard Rail-Road, and connecting routes now in course of construction, the same journey can be performed in one day and a half, which shows a difference in favor of the lower route of two entire days:—a difference which cannot be diminished, unless the rail-road from Montgomery to West Point should make a connection with the Girard Rail-Road; and even in that event the lower line, from the directness of its course, must retain great advantage in time and distance over the circuitous route in Georgia, by which the mail is now conveyed. Mails and passengers from Mobile, destined for New-York, by taking a steamer at Savannah, can be conveyed through in four days, upon the completion of your road and its eastern connections—a speed that will distance and defy all competition.

"The construction of a branch road thirty miles in length, will connect your

road with the two great lines to Nashville and Lynchburg; thus at once opening a rail-road communication between Mobile and the Great West. This is a connection now designed to be accomplished by a herculean enterprise, involving the construction of five hundred miles of rail-road, at an expense of nine millions of dollars.

"Our route passes within forty miles of Pensacola, the great naval depot of the south. From this port, also, an improvement is projected at great cost; the full benefits of which will be realized to its movers by a connection with our road requiring but forty miles of rail-road construction."

9.—LOUISVILLE AND MEMPHIS RAIL-ROAD.

We note the particulars of a late meeting in Memphis, at which it was resolved, to hold in Jackson, Tennessee, a Convention, in the month of May next, of all persons and neighborhoods interested in the rail-road from Memphis to Louisville. We referred in our last number to some of the advantages of this road, and add the following:

1. The road will render certain, rapid and regular, the mail service between Louisville and Memphis.

2. It will throw into Memphis thousands of persons that now pass up and down the Mississippi river without stopping.

3. It will also throw all this travel by Nashville, and thus make it a great thoroughfare for thousands of persons, who now pass through the country without even seeing that city.

4. It cannot fail to add to the importance and profit of the Memphis and Charleston work, for the reason (as stated before) that a part of this road must be the Memphis and Louisville line for this greatly increased travel, and for the mail service.

5. It will also be important to Nashville, inasmuch as it will most certainly divert the Mobile and Ohio Road from its present contemplated route, and throw it through Nashville, to the Ohio at Louisville, instead of at Cairo. Connect NASHVILLE, as a centre with Memphis, Louisville, Mobile and Charleston, and but a short time will elapse before it will be connected with Cairo; for this will place *Missouri* and *Illinois* in a direct line of communication with the *Atlantic at Charleston and Savannah.*

Let Nashville and Memphis—let the middle and western divisions of the State, look to it, and send to our next Legislature the right sort of men.

GATOR.

10.—SAVANNAH AND HER RAIL-ROADS.

We notice that the arrangement, for some time contemplated, of the junction of the rail-roads at Macon, has been perfected. The terms have been arranged by the City Council of Macon and the Central Road, a great majority of the citizens of Macon voting favorably to the object.

By this, the Columbus Road, uniting with the South-western, will be connected without break with the Central Road,—so of the Macon and Western and the State Road, which will thus be also united, making the continuous line of rail-road travel on the latter route 431 miles—and on the Columbus route, when finished, some 280 miles—and all in Georgia.

This great object accomplished, Savannah must feel its favorable influences very soon. That it gives our sea-port every advantage that itself could desire, is evident. Her commerce must be greatly increased, and with her ocean steamers and her uninterrupted rail-road line, she must in time pass most of the travel.

She ought to be the Commercial Emporium of the South. If legislative facilities are required by the business men of our sea-port to advance our commercial prosperity, let it be freely and cordially granted. It is the policy and duty of our government to foster, in every legitimate way, this great branch of State prosperity. Charleston has ever felt the friendly impulse of its own State government; she is never refused her requests in all that is required to make her the

sea-port of the South; and bountifully does she return all that is done for her, in the rich fruits of an extensive commerce, the influence of which is felt in every pursuit and by every citizen. Such is the immense importance of her sea-port to our sister State, that the question may well be put, "without Charleston, what would she be?" Georgia is quite too extensive in domain—in variety of natural wealth and resources—in population, in intelligence, and the multiplied means for its general diffusion—ever to be asked such a question in relation to her sea-port, or any other, however prosperous; but the question may be asked, and with an emphasis which should reach every citizen, what may not Georgia be, when in addition to her own great resources, she draws to her bosom the mighty commerce of the West, and makes the world tributary to her, as from her sea-port she dispenses it to every quarter of the earth?

We wish her the realization of the utmost prosperity from all these sources of aggrandizement—she has our best wishes, from our own good will, as well as our interest in the prosperity of our State, and she deserves them all by her own energetic and self-sacrificing efforts for their accomplishment.

11.—OPELOUSAS RAIL-ROAD, LOUISIANA.

The citizens of Opelousas, appreciating the difficulties of organizing themselves, —long afflicted with the *vis inertia* so prevalent in our State, but yet earnestly desirous of connecting themselves with the Mississippi, and thus with the great world of progress beyond, "whereof they have something heard by parcels, but not intentively"—have offered a bonus of one hundred thousand dollars to any individuals or Company who will undertake and complete the construction of a rail-road between those points.

It will be remembered, that in the flourishing bank era of Louisiana, when "shinplasters" were so abundant as to be carried in men's hats, rather than their pocket-books, the Atchafalaya Bank was chartered with a capital of $500,000, for the purpose of building a road from Morganzia, in the parish of Point Coupee, to Opelousas. The history of the Company is a curious one, but it soon went into bankruptcy, without effecting any thing more than a *survey* of the route, and constructing some work-shops, etc. An effort was afterwards made to build the road by direct appropriation, but being vetoed by the governor, it wanted in the Legislature but a single vote of being passed over his head, so urgently required was the road at that time believed to be.

Why the matter has slept for fifteen years, it is difficult to say, unless the usual excuse of general apathy in regard to *all* improvements, be alleged. However, it is never too late, we are told, if the lamp be burning still, for the "vilest sinners to return;" and the people of St. Landry have only to take hold of the work with energy to see it accomplished. With so fair a showing as they make, capitalists will not be long in repose.

The length of this road will be 36 miles; and we are assured by gentlemen familiar with the country, that a route far more favorable in every respect than that of the old survey may be adopted, passing through the town of Washington. Should the passage of the Atchafalaya by bridges prove a serious objection, steamers may be used for the transportation of cars, as on many northern roads. The whole construction, it is believed, will not involve an outlay of more than $350,000. We extract from the Saint Landry Whig:

"The question now is, "Will we get capitalists to accept our offer?" That the road will pay well, perhaps equal to any in America, there can be no doubt. Taking the route over lands free from overflow, save three or four miles, the distance to the river will be about thirty-six miles. Adjacent to the road the finest cypress abounds, so that the superstructure in wood, from Washington to the river,

may be made by timber growing almost immediately on the track. The cost of the road, including clearing, grading, draining, superstructure of wood and iron, station houses, shops, and cars, cannot, I presume, amount to more than $350,000.

Now, on the hypothesis that the road would transport the whole of our exports and imports, leaving out of view the immediate and immense increase of our staple products, and the growing up of other agricultural and grazing interests, so soon as the road shall have been completed, let us make an estimate of the probable income to the proprietors:

12,000 hhds. sugar, at $1	$12,000
18,000 bales cotton, at 37½ cts	5,000
20,000 bbls. molasses, 37½ cts	7,000
20,000 beeves, $1	20,000
10,000 calves, 50 cts	5,000
10,000 sheep, 50 cts	5,000
Merchandise, (return freight)	10,000
Passengers	10,000
Picus, staves, shingles, hoop-poles, lumber, etc	5,000
100,000 cords wood, sold at the river terminus at a profit of $1 per cord	100,000
5,000 cords wood, sold at Opelousas and Washington	5,000
Hides, horns, vegetables, poultry, game and moss	2,000
	$186,000

"It will be no less interesting than astounding to those who have not given the matter their reflection, to estimate the annual loss to the parish for the want of this road. For example, let us take the two items of beeves and cotton for the year 1850, as an illustration. Our beeves, fresh from the grass of the prairies, would be worth $5 per head more in New-Orleans than when driven as they now are down the coast. The cost of driving, including escaping and crippling of beeves, amounts to about $3 per head. Now, allow two dollars for transporting by the cars and packet boats per head (if they be not slaughtered at Opelousas), and we lose on each head six dollars. It is estimated we shall lose two and a half cents on ten thousand bales of cotton of last year's crop. Now see the result:

40,000 beeves, less per head, say $6	$240,000
10,000 bales cotton " bale, " 9	90,000
	$330,000

Thus we might assert without exaggeration, that the losses upon beef cattle and cotton, for the year 1850, would probably suffice to construct the whole work.

"The writer is personally acquainted with the route from Opelousas to the Petit Prairie Bayou (by way of Washington) more than half the whole distance, having hunted over the ground frequently, and he defies contradiction when he asserts, that a road can be made from Opelousas by way of Washington to the Petit Prairie Bayou, diverging but little from a direct line, and not an acre of which was overflowed in 1850. It is true, the most of the route will pass over a perfect plane, and the greater portion of the road must be ditched after leaving Washington, to free it from rain water. Of the balance of the route I have no personal knowledge; but the late engineer of the State, Col. Williams, in his report to the Legislature for the year 1848, says there are but four miles of overflowed land, and that requiring an embankment averaging not more than three feet high. We also learn from said report, that a road has been cut from the river almost to the Atchafalaya on the Bayou Foudoche. He, whilst State Engineer, caused a road to be cut out forty yards wide from the Atchafalaya to within two and a half miles of Bayou Ouaksha, leaving but seven or eight miles of the whole route to be cleared of timber.

12.—ESSAY ON PLANK ROADS.—No. 1.

We are indebted to Mr. Gregg for an elaborate and valuable article upon this subject, which, in consequence of its length, we shall be obliged to divide into two or three numbers.

A charter of incorporation for a company to build a plank road from Charleston to the Mountains was obtained from the Legislature of South Carolina at its last session, by a company of gentlemen of Edgefield, together with a few individuals of this city. The plan is to commence at Charleston and proceed to the vicinity of Abbeville Court-House, taking the direction of the South Carolina Rail-road, and crossing the Edisto between Branchville and Orangeburgh; there striking the dividing ridge between the two Edistos, which leads without crossing water to the ridge which divides the waters of the Savannah and Saluda. There is probably no location in the United States which will afford easier average grades. They may certainly be reduced to one foot in fifty both ways as far as Abbeville, and beyond that to Pendleton, one in thirty.

In the list of great improvements which characterize the present age of progress, and which have aided so materially in widely diffusing the comforts of human life, the plank road is destined to occupy a prominent place. Good common roads tend to change the condition of the planter or farmer, wherever they are extended.

The plank road gives him a thoroughfare infinitely superior to any other, not excepting rail-roads. The superiority consists in its peculiar adaptation to the wants of a people, who necessarily maintain a large number of mules and horses, which are fed and kept in idleness, at a season of the year when crops are sent to market:—a motive power, which would carry a crop to market on a plank road without cost, except for tolls. The traveling community, too, will, by the same means, move without being subjected to the rules and regulations of others, as to time, speed, or equipage, in which they desire to travel. The cheapness and facility with which plank roads may be constructed in our state, need only to be made known to produce a change which will, in after years, annihilate one of the greatest evils known to our country:—the mud and mire through which our bulky and valuable products are yearly dragged to market. In many parts of our country this is a source of involuntary hermitage, for a day's journey is not attainable, except through roads which seem to have concentrated all the evils that could embarrass a traveler. Plank roads, by penetrating our forests, will find material for their construction, and afterwards afford the means of carrying them into portions of our state where the timber has been exhausted. They will be the means of redeeming and settling lands hitherto considered useless. When introduced, they will so expedite travel, as to bring a large range of our surrounding country so near to us, as to be, as it were, the environs of our city. The plank road is the road of the people, open to all, affording relief to the beast of burden, multiplying and cheapening the means of carrying produce to market, and affording a delightful means of travel. We can trace back their origin to Russia, but are unable to fix a date. They were introduced into Canada in 1834, in our northern states in 1846, recently in Georgia, and other southern and western states. They have superseded McAdamised roads, and in some instances have held successful competition side by side with rail-roads. Even in countries where stone is abundant, and wood comparatively scarce, they are one-half cheaper than McAdamised roads, and one-fourth of the cost of rail-roads; and when constantly used by heavy burthen wagons so as to wear them out before they rot, they are more durable than McAdamised roads, including the outlay necessary to relay the plank road once in seven years. A horse or mule will draw twice the weight on a plank road that he could on a McAdamised one, travel with greater speed, more ease to himself, and less wear to the vehicle which he draws. The state of New-York, the first to introduce them, in the course of five years, has extended this species of improvement to over a thousand miles, which she has now already completed, and in daily use.

In the whole history of internal improvements, there is scarcely any thing to surpass the rapidity with which this system has developed itself. Plank roads by the side of rail-roads are in use in New-York, and paying 10 to 15 per cent., carrying passengers at two cents per mile.

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Now, on the hypothesis that the road would transport the w
and imports, leaving out of view the immediate and immense
ple products, and the growing up of other agricultural and
soon as the road shall have been completed, let us make a
bable income to the proprietors:

12,000 hhds. sugar, at $1.....
13,000 bales cotton, at 37½ cts.....
20,000 bbls. molasses, 37½ cts.....
20,000 beeves, $1.....
10,000 calves, 50 cts.....
10,000 sheep, 50 cts.....
Merchandise, (return freight).....
Passengers.....
Picus, staves, shingles, hoop-poles, lumb
100,000 cords wood, sold at the river t
$1 per cord.....
5,000 cords wood, sold at Opelousas a
Hides, horns, vegetables, poultry, gar

"It will be no less interesting than as
matter their reflection, to estimate the
this road. For example, let us take
year 1850, as an illustration. Our
would be worth $5 per head more in
are down the coast. The cost of
beeves, amounts to about $3 per h
by the cars and packet boats per
and we lose on each head six
and a half cents on ten thousand
result:

40,000 beeves, less per
10,000 bales cotton

Thus we might assert v
cotton, for the year 1850

"The writer is per
Petit Prairie Bayou (
having hunted over
asserts, that a road
Petit Prairie Bayou
was overflowed in
plane, and the gr
ton, to free it
knowledge; bu
Legislature for
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Bayou Ou
of timber.

of life, and
arts. Yet this
ample; and though
overgrown fortunes w
to spare out of their
ers, yet we might have
r means to great literary a
luntary associations, had not
urplus been exhausted by the
Federal taxation and legislation,
we have lost the use of an average
since 1790, of seventy odd millions
lars of our commerce, and at the same
, paid in taxes a tribute averaging some
teen millions of dollars per annum, whe
ent at the North. And with the ability to
encourage our own literature, we begin to
lose the desire—to lose that faith in our
selves, and our own duties, and our own in
stitutions, without which no nation has ever
accomplished anything great. The origin of
this feeling goes far back; the Revolution
found us with entails, primogeniture, and an
established Church, and also with their na
tural consequence, a well educated class, of
whom our Wythes, Pendletons, and Masons,
our Madisons, Jeffersons, and Randolphs,
were the representatives; men whose minds
were trained to such soundness of judg
ment, that they could see the injustice, and
the invidious distinctions of the system they
grew up under, and be the first to abolish it.
But in escaping the evils of the system, we
lost the advantages it conferred, for no sys
tem of education adapted to the new order
of things took its place.

Therefore the men of the next generation were greatly inferior to their fathers in learning, and the few who received education at Northern Colleges, brought back second-hand history and shallow philosophy. They joined the place-hunting politicians in an outcry against Southern indolence, and its lauded cause, Southern Slavery; they pointed us to Northern opulence and the growth of Northern cities, not as what they really are, the fruit of the tribute that has dwarfed our own cities, but as examples of their superior enterprise and industry, until at last we began to believe, what was so often dinned into our ears, that slavery was the moral, social, and political evil they pretended. Mr. Jefferson saw this danger, and designed the University to avert it. He says, in a letter

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OUTHERN UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES.

			Teachers.	Std's.
ohn's	Annapolis,	Md	6	30
Mary's	Baltimore	"	20	175
St. Mary's	Emmetsburg	"	24	126
t. James	Hagerstown,	"	10	32
Washington	Chestertown,	"	5	70
Georgetown	Georgetown,	D.C	11	180
Columbian	Washington,	"	10	55
Wm. and Mary	Williamsburg,	Va	6	—
Hampden Sydney	PrinceEd. Co.	"	6	25
Washington	Lexington,	"	6	81
Univer. Virginia	Charlottsville,	"	10	212
Randolph, Macon	Boydton,	"	11	145
Emory	Glade Spring,	"	4	55
Rector	Taylor Co.	"	3	50
Bethany	Bethany,	"	6	113
Richmond	Richmond,	"	4	72
Va. Mil. Inst	Lexington,	N. C	6	120
Univer.N.Carolina	Chapel Hill,	"	9	150
Davidson	Mecklenburg,	"	3	44
Wake Forest	Wake Forest,	"	3	24
Charleston	Charleston,	S. C	6	70
S. Carolina	Columbia,	"	8	219
Erskine	Abbeville,	"	—	88
Franklin	Athens,	Geo	8	125
Oglethorpe	Milledgeville	"	5	45
Emory	Oxford,	"	6	126
Mercer	Penfield,	"	5	61
Christ Col	Montpelier,	"	4	35
Univer. Alabama	Tuscaloosa,	Ala	9	92
La Grange	La Grange	"	6	76
Spring Hill	Spring Hill,	"	12	70
Howard	Marion,	"	6	40
Oakland	Oakland	"	6	64
Univer. of La*	New-Orleans,	La	—	—
tenary	Jackson,	"	5	49
les	Grand Cotan,	"	21	103
	Baton Rouge	"	4	45
	Opelousas,	"	4	70
	Greenville,	Tenn	2	41
	Washington	"	2	42
ville	Nashville,	"	7	45
	"	"	6	65
	Knoxville,	"	5	57
nd	Lebanon,	"	6	61
	Columbia	"	5	26
	Murfreesboro'	"	4	70
sylvania	Lexington,	Ky	7	50
Joseph's	Bardstown,	"	17	126
nter	Danville,	"	5	130
Augusta	Augusta,	"	4	51
Georgetown	Georgetown	"	7	78
Bacon	Harrodsburg	"	4	60
West. Military	Georgetown	"	9	70
Shelby	Shelbyville,	"	4	93
Univer. St. Louis	St. Louis,	Mo	17	160
St. Vincent	Cape Girardeau	"	12	90
Masonic	Marion Co.,	"	5	45
Mo. University	Columbia,	"	12	52
St. Charles	St. Charles,	"	5	60
Fayette	Fayette,	"	2	75

SOUTHERN THEOLOGICAL SCHOOLS.

		Teachers.	Scholars.
Episcopal	Fairfax, Va	4	36
Presbyterian	Prince Ed. "	3	20
Baptist	Richmond "	3	67
Presbyterian	Columbia, S. C	3	24
Lutheran	Lexington "	2	10
Baptist	Fairfield "	2	30
Baptist	Penfield, Ga	3	40
Baptist	Marion, Ala	2	10
Baptist	Covington, Ky	4	17
Presbyterian	Maryville, Ten	2	24

SOUTHERN LAW SCHOOLS.

	Prof.	Scholars.
Williamsburg, Va	1	32
Charlottsville "	1	72
Chapel Hill, N. C	1	10
Tuscaloosa, Ala	1	—
Lexington, Ky	3	75
Lebanon, Tenn	1	25
New-Orleans, La	4	3

SOUTHERN MEDICAL COLLEGES.

	Prof.	Scholars.
Baltimore, Md	6	100
"	6	25
Washington, D. C	6	40
Charlottsville, Va	3	45
Richmond, "	6	75
Winchester, "	5	—
Charleston, S. C	8	158
Augusta, Geo	7	115
New-Orleans, La	7	165
Memphis, Tenn	8	—†
Louisville, Ky	8	242
Lexington, "	7	214
St. Louis, Mo	9	75
" "	9	102

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† We cannot learn the number of students, but receive a monthly bulletin from the College, which shows the institution to be flourishing. There have been some difficulties we know of a local character, but we are assured that with a proper effort, Memphis may build up a school in every respect equal to that of Louisville.

EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

1.—EDUCATION AT THE SOUTH.

We have read with pleasure an address delivered at the University of Virginia, upon the subject of Education in Virginia, and throughout the South, by R. H. Garnett, Esq. This gentleman was, we believe, the author of the pamphlet, "The Union, Past and Present," which created such a sensation, and is without doubt one of the rising stars of that commonwealth which has been the mother of states and statesmen. Space will not admit of an analysis of the address, which is a classical and patriotic production; and we can only make a single extract in which the author places Virginia and the South for once *rectus in curia.*

"It is true, that some Northern writers have cooked over the old dishes of the schools about aristocracy, democracy, and monarchy, and the notions which the liberal thinkers of the last century made commonplaces: and it is evidently on such food that Northern statesmen have been reared; but all that is deep, and original, and vital in American politics, is Southern. You will feel the difference sensibly if you compare the writings of the elder Adams with those of his great rival, Jefferson, or with Taylor's. And who is worthy to be named in the same breath with the transcendent Carolinian we still mourn, and on whose imperishable glory death has placed his seal? No speeches were so widely or so eagerly read on their first appearance as his, for all felt them to be the final word on his side of every great question; but still more earnestly will they be studied by future ages, for they are the not wholly disjointed members of a great body of political philosophy, which the world has rarely seen equalled, and never surpassed. And if the South has done but little in other departments of literature, it is, that she there missed the stimulus, which the Constitution has hitherto secured to her slave-holders in politics. It would seem that studies not immediately connected with our practical interests, need the stimulus afforded by concentrated wealth, concentrated either by the patronage of a central government, which, as in imperial Rome or France, makes an imitative literature, or in the hands of individuals, and by the patronage of rival institutions and centres of activity, which creates an original literature, as in Greece, Germany and England. Now, this stimulus the South has entirely wanted. It is true, there is a great degree of physical well-being amongst her population, and a higher average of wealth amongst her whites, than in any other part of the world; but the habits of her people require many things as necessaries, which are elsewhere regarded as luxuries, and this high standard of comfort diminishes the surplus which is destined to purchase the refined elegancies of life, and to support literature and the arts. Yet this surplus would have been ample; and though we have no such overgrown fortunes as Astor's or Girard's to spare out of their abundance to letters, yet we might have concentrated our means to great literary advantage by voluntary associations, had not even this surplus been exhausted by the course of Federal taxation and legislation, by which we have lost the use of an average amount, since 1790, of seventy odd millions of dollars of our commerce, and at the same time, paid in taxes a tribute averaging some fourteen millions of dollars per annum, to be spent at the North. And with the ability to encourage our own literature, we began to lose the desire—to lose that faith in ourselves, and our own duties, and our own institutions, without which no nation has ever accomplished anything great. The origin of this feeling goes far back; the Revolution found us with entails, primogeniture, and an established Church, and also with their natural consequence, a well educated class, of whom our Wythes, Pendletons, and Masons, our Madisons, Jeffersons, and Randolphs, were the representatives; men whose minds were trained to such soundness of judgment, that they could see the injustice, and the invidious distinctions of the system they grew up under, and be the first to abolish it. But in escaping the evils of the system, we lost the advantages it conferred, for no system of education adapted to the new order of things took its place.

Therefore the men of the next generation were greatly inferior to their fathers in learning, and the few who received education at Northern Colleges, brought back second-hand history and shallow philosophy. They joined the place-hunting politicians in an outcry against Southern indolence, and its fancied cause, Southern Slavery; they pointed us to Northern opulence and the growth of Northern cities, not as what they really are, the fruit of the tribute that has dwarfed our own cities, but as examples of their superior enterprise and industry, until at last we began to believe, what was so often dinned into our ears, that slavery was the moral, social, and political evil they pretended. Mr. Jefferson saw this danger, and designed the University to avert it. He says, in a letter

written soon after the Missouri question was settled, that on this institution "the fortunes of our country may depend more than may meet the general eye. The reflections that the boys of this age are to be the men of the next; that they should be prepared to receive the holy charge, which we are cherishing to deliver over to them; that in establishing an institution of wisdom for them, we secure it to all our future generations; that in fulfilling this duty, we bring home to our own bosoms the sweet consolation of seeing our sons rising under a luminous tuition, to destinies of high promise; these are considerations which will occur to all; but all, I fear, do not see the speck in our horizon, which is to burst on us as a tornado, sooner or later. *The line of division lately marked out between different portions of our confederacy, is such as will never, I fear, be obliterated*, and we are now trusting to those who are against us in position and principle, to fashion to their own form the minds and affections of our youth. If, as has been estimated, we send three hundred thousand dollars a year to the northern seminaries for the instruction of our own sons, then we must have there five hundred of our sons, imbibing opinions and principles in discord with those of their own country. This canker is eating in the vitals of our existence, and if not arrested at once, will be beyond remedy. We are now certainly furnishing recruits to their school.

2.—SOUTHERN UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES.

			Teachers.	Std's.
St. John's	Annapolis,	Md	6	30
St. Mary's	Baltimore	"	20	175
Mt. St. Mary's	Emmetsburg	"	24	126
St. James	Hagerstown,	"	10	32
Washington	Chestertown,	"	5	70
Georgetown	Georgetown,	D.C	11	180
Columbian	Washington,	"	10	55
Wm. and Mary	Williamsburg,	Va	6	—
Hampden Sydney	Prince Ed. Co.	"	6	25
Washington	Lexington,	"	6	81
Univer. Virginia	Charlottsville,	"	10	212
Randolph, Macon	Boydton,	"	11	145
Emory	Glade Spring,	"	4	55
Rector	Taylor Co.	"	3	50
Bethany	Bethany,	"	6	113
Richmond	Richmond,	"	4	72
Va. Mil. Inst.	Lexington,	N. C	6	120
Univer. N. Carolina	Chapel Hill,	"	9	150
Davidson	Mecklenburg,	"	3	44
Wake Forest	Wake Forest,	"	3	24
Charleston	Charleston,	S. C	6	70
S. Carolina	Columbia,	"	8	219
Erskine	Abbeville,	"	—	88
Franklin	Athens,	Geo	8	125
Oglethorpe	Milledgeville	"	5	45
Emory	Oxford,	"	6	126
Mercer	Penfield,	"	5	61
Christ Col.	Montpelier,	"	4	35
Univer. Alabama	Tuscaloosa,	Ala	9	92
La Grange	La Grange	"	6	76
Spring Hill	Spring Hill,	"	12	70
Howard	Marion,	"	6	40
Oakland	Oakland	"	6	64
Univer. of La*	New-Orleans,	La	—	—
Centenary	Jackson,	"	5	49
St. Charles	Grand Cotan,	"	21	103
Baton Rouge	Baton Rouge	"	4	45
Franklin	Opeloussas,	"	4	70
Greenville	Greenville,	Tenn	2	41
Washington	Washington	"	2	42
Univer. Nashville	Nashville,	"	7	45
Franklin	"	"	6	25
East Tenn.	Knoxville,	"	5	57
Cumberland	Lebanon,	"	6	61
Jackson	Columbia	"	5	26
Union	Murfreesboro'	"	4	70
Transylvania	Lexington,	Ky	7	50
St. Joseph's	Bardstown,	"	17	126
Center	Danville,	"	5	130
Augusta	Augusta,	"	4	51
Georgetown	Georgetown	"	7	78
Bacon	Harrodsburg	"	4	60
West. Military	Georgetown	"	9	70
Shelby	Shelbyville,	"	4	93
Univer. St. Louis	St. Louis,	Mo	17	160
St. Vincent	Cape Girardeau	"	12	90
Masonic	Marion Co.,	"	5	45
Mo. University	Columbia,	"	12	52
St. Charles	St. Charles,	"	5	60
Fayette	Fayette,	"	2	75

SOUTHERN THEOLOGICAL SCHOOLS.

		Teachers.	Scholars.
Episcopal	Fairfax, Va.	4	38
Presbyterian	Prince Ed. "	3	20
Baptist	Richmond "	3	67
Presbyterian	Columbia, S. C.	3	24
Lutheran	Lexington "	2	10
Baptist	Fairfield "	2	30
Baptist	Penfield, Ga.	3	40
Baptist	Marion, Ala.	2	10
Baptist	Covington, Ky.	4	17
Presbyterian	Maryville, Ten.	2	24

SOUTHERN LAW SCHOOLS.

	Prof.	Scholars.
Williamsburg, Va	1	32
Charlottsville "	1	72
Chapel Hill, N. C	1	10
Tuscaloosa, Ala	1	—
Lexington, Ky	3	75
Lebanon, Tenn	1	25
New-Orleans, La	4	3

SOUTHERN MEDICAL COLLEGES.

	Prof.	Scholars.
Baltimore, Md	6	100
"	6	25
Washington, D. C	6	40
Charlottsville, Va	3	45
Richmond, "	6	75
Winchester, "	5	—
Charleston, S. C	8	158
Augusta, Geo	7	115
New-Orleans, La	7	165
Memphis, Tenn	8	—†
Louisville, Ky	6	242
Lexington, "	7	214
St. Louis, Mo	9	75
" "	9	102

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† We cannot learn the number of students, but receive a monthly bulletin from the College, which shows the institution to be flourishing. There have been some difficulties we know of a local character, but we are assured that with a proper effort, Memphis may build up a school in every respect equal to that of Louisville.

EXPENSES NORTHERN AND SOUTHERN COLLEGES.

	College Expenses.	Board.	Others.
Harvard	$90	$90	—
Yale	54	90	20
University, Va	98	110	20
Do. N. C	61	90	20

JEFFERSON COLLEGE AND MILITARY INSTITUTE.—Nothing affords us more gratification, than to observe and announce new proofs of Southern improvement. We have recently spoken of Oakland College in Mississippi. We now learn that the oldest literary institution in that State, Jefferson College, near Natchez, has been revived. It is to be conducted on the military plan. Washington is an agreeable village, six miles from Natchez, in a healthy country, and accessible from all parts of Louisiana. We commend it, as well as the other excellent college, to parents seeking a good school for their sons.

3.—THE MINERALS OF LOUISIANA.

Dr. J. Holliday, of Harrisonburg, Catahoula Parish, Louisiana, has placed in our charge a very splendid collection of the minerals of Louisiana, which we shall be glad to exhibit or dispose of for any private gentleman's cabinet, or any school or college. The price is one thousand dollars, and there are 1,836 specimens, to wit: yellow Cornelian, 300; red, 67; Crystallized Quartz, 30; Feldspars, 12; black Jasper or Jet, 100; Fossil shell, Isolated shell, Ribbon Jasper, Amonite, Fossil wood, miscellaneous specimens, 200; Sardonix, 150; Onyx Agates, large, 300; small, 367; Rose Quartz 93; Smoky do., lead colored, Jasper and Calcalong, Jasper and Quarts; Jasper, red and black, Jasper, brown and red, 43; Jasper, brown, 20; Jasper, red, 20; Mountain wood, 20; Impressions of marine shells, on rock, 15; Impressions of worms, Indian Calumet, 6 Indian hatchets, 2 Paint Cups, &c. These pieces were all picked up in the region surrounding Harrisonburg; some on the surface of the Pine hills, on a bar of the Ouachita, nearly opposite the town, and likewise on the bars and creeks and rivulets. The collection was begun in 1842, and the owner has worked upon it with untiring labor in collecting and polishing to the highest degree, rising two or three hours before the sun. He thinks it would be impossible now to make a similar collection, the specimens being exhausted.

In addition to the Louisiana specimens, Dr. Holliday's collection embraces some pieces of interest from other quarters; such as Garnet, Serpentine, etc., etc. We should like to see his labor of love properly appreciated and rewarded, and trust that his collection will not have to go out of Louisiana for a purchaser, inasmuch as it is the only one that has ever been made in the State. The University should favor it.

4.—THE DANGERS WHICH ENVIRON SLAVES IN THE UNION.

Gen. Felix Houston delivered, not long since, an address at Lexington, Miss., in which he reviewed the causes injuriously affecting the prospects of the Slave States, and concluded with a recapitulation, which, as the expression of the whole of a great matter in a nut-shell, we take the liberty of quoting.

1st. From the abolition feeling in the North which threatens its destruction, manifested as follows:

2d. The exclusion of slavery from all the territories.

3d. The abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia, in the docks, navy yards, on the high seas, and in all places subject to the legislation of Congress.

4th. The opening of diplomatic relations with Hayti and Liberia.

5th. The Ebony line.

6th. The prohibition of the slave trade between the States.

7th. Continual agitation, the formation of abolition societies, the union of the churches against slavery, and abduction of slaves from the border slave-holding States.

8th. Nullification of the article of the Constitution providing for the surrender of fugitive slaves.

9th. Receiving negroes as citizens in the non-slave-holding States, and claiming for them the rights of citizens in the slave-holding States, and the right to hold office under the General Government.

10th. The colonization of Abolitionists in the border slave-holding States.

11th. The seductions of the General Government, which, by its wealth and patronage, bribes Southern members of Congress to betray their constituents.

12th. Adverse legislation, and throwing the burdens of Government on the productions and labor of the South.

13th. The enormous and vastly increasing expenditures of Government.

14th. The expenses of defences against the Indians, exploring the country, surveying the Pacific coast, erecting light-houses, and supporting territorial governments in countries from which the South is excluded; which may, in the aggregate, be set down at no less than twenty millions of dollars per annum.

15th. The destruction of the equilibrium of the Government, as between the slave-holding and the non-slave-holding States.

16th. The present and increasing preponderance of the non-slave-holding States, numerically, by vast foreign emigration, both by the Atlantic and Pacific sea-boards, and also by removals from the Southern States; and, as States, by the rapid formation of state governments out of the territories, and division of States which are too large, and to increase the majority in the Senate.

17th. The danger of losing the border slave-holding States.

18th. The injury inflicted on us by opening the way to white emigration, and closing it to slave emigration.

19th. The effect which crowding the negro race on the cotton-growing States will have.

20th. The danger of an opinion gaining ground that slavery will soon end, and its ruinous effects.

21st. The danger of the idea of Northern superiority, and sympathy with the negro race, and of Southern inferiority and cowardice, spreading amongst our negroes, and rendering them dissatisfied and rebellious.

22d. The danger of distrust of our negroes spreading amongst ourselves, and leading to extermination.

23d. The withdrawal of capital from the Southern States, desire to sell and emigrate, depreciation of property, general gloom and depression, and ultimate ruin.

24th. The annexation of Canada.

25th. The doing away with the three-fifths basis of representation.

26th. Propositions for government appropriations, and various devices to forward the abolition of slavery.

27th. The abolition of slavery by the amendment of the Constitution.

5.—CENTRE OF THE UNION MOVING WEST.

We have seen the calculation somewhere, that the population of the Union has been sweeping westward, wave-like, at the rate of about 13 miles per annum. At this rate it is a simple problem to tell when we shall reach the Pacific, though as to all afterward there may be some doubt. Already it has ceased to be an adventure of romance, as when Irving wrote his "Astoria," to visit the spot where

> "Rolls the Oregon,
> And hears no sound save his own dashings;"

and the invitation of Humphreys is divested of all its poetry:

> ——"Together let us rise;
> Seek brighter plains and more indulgent skies,
> Where fair Ohio rolls his amber tide,
> And nature blossoms in her virgin pride."

Dr. Patterson, of Philadelphia, thus calculates the centre of *representative* population.

In 1790, the centre of representative population was in Baltimore county, Md., forty-six miles north, and twenty-two miles east, from Washington. In 1800, it was in Adams county, Pennsylvania, sixty-four miles north, and thirty west, from Washington. In 1820, it was in Morgan county, Virginia, forty-seven miles north, and seventy-one west, from Washington. In 1830, it was in Hampshire county, Virginia, forty-three miles north, and one hundred and eight west, from Washington. In 1840, it was in Marion county, Virginia, thirty-six miles north, and one hundred and sixty west, from Washington. Thus, it would appear, that the centre of representative population has kept nearly on the same parallel of latitude for fifty years; the latitude of 1840 being within ten miles of that of 1790. It has in the same fifty years moved westward one hundred and eighty-two miles.

Thus we perceive, that the mass of representative population is moving westward with accelerated velocity. The following statement exhibits the movement West:

From 1790 to 1800, it was	.....	13	miles.
" 1800 to 1810, "	.....	39	"
" 1810 to 1820, "	.....	41	"
" 1820 to 1830, "	.....	37	"
" 1830 to 1840, "	.....	52	"

The centre of representative population is now just about the Ohio River.

6.—METEOROLOGY OF NEW-ORLEANS.

We are indebted to Dr. E. H. Barton for his valuable Meteorological Tables of New-Orleans, for 1850. They are the most minute and accurate, and we could wish to preserve them entire, did space permit. Dr. Barton is one of the most minute observers of meteorological changes in America, and has prepared some most curious and interesting charts and reports for various societies, periodicals, boards of health, etc. We give his account of temperature at New-Orleans last year:

THERMOMETRICAL AVERAGES.

1850.	At sun-rise.	At 9 A.M. detached.	At 3 P.M. atc'd.	At 9 P.M. dtc'd.	Total average.	Barometric average.
Jan.	56.35	61.60	67.19	59.93	62.34	30 052
Feb.	51.46	58.75	65.96	55.07	58.11	30.086
Mar.	60.96	65.48	68.22	63.93	65.90	30.001
Apl.	62.10	69.56	72.44	68.50	68.15	30.014
May	67.64	73.33	75.74	72.83	74.28	29.998
June	73-66	79.66	79.40	77.40	77.54	30.099
July	77.61	82.64	84.12	82.46	81.70	30.044
Aug.	78.68	84.51	85.74	82.71	82.91	30.036
Sept.	74.93	81.91	84.14	81.34	80.45	30.045
Oct.	65.	72.	74.79	70.53	71.35	30.095
Nov.	57.30	61.34	66.46	60 16	61.31	30.208
Dec.	47.93	55.68	62.38	56	55.49	30.130
Total.	64.46	70.53	73.88	69.23	70.05	30-077

7.—MERCANTILE SOCIETIES OF CINCINNATI AND ST. LOUIS.

The *Cincinnati Society* includes 1,694 members; 1,292 volumes were added to the library last year. The Society has purchased a complete set of Bohn's publications, 240 volumes of the most select and valuable works. The library now contains 11,000 volumes. Several courses of lectures have been delivered before the Society during the past year.

Joseph C. Butler, *President.*
James Lupton, *Vice-President.*
R. L. Fabian, *Cor. Secretary.*
H. D. Huntington, *Rec. Secretary.*
W. H. Neff, *Treasurer.*

The *St. Louis Society* includes among its members, 248 clerks, 220 proprietors, 159 beneficiaries. Receipts in the past year, $5,578 08. Twelve lectures were delivered, producing $1,754. Volumes in the library, 5,142. Whole property of the Society valued at $11,261 93.

Hudson E. Bridge, *President.*
Conrad R. Stinde, *Vice-President.*
J. W. Stith, *Treasurer.*
G. R. Robinson, *Cor. Secretary.*
John A. Allen, *Rec. Secretary.*
W. P. Curtis, *Librarian.*

8.—PRESERVATION OF TIMBER.

We are indebted to Chas. H. Sheafe, Esq., of New-Orleans, for a pamphlet prospectus of Payne's process for preserving timber, of which he has been appointed agent; and we also had the pleasure, in company with Mr. Sheafe, of examining a number of specimens of wood taken from the forests of Louisiana, which had been subjected to the process. The manner is to exhaust the pores of the wood *in vacuo*, and then, by mechanical forces, to insert in lieu, or by absorption, certain acids, which completely saturate, discolor, harden, and increase the weight of the wood. The pieces we examined seemed almost like fossil-wood, and were prepared in New-York, though it is proposed to establish a company here, for the purpose of carrying on the work.

"Wood subjected to this process, will be found proof against wet or dry rot in every situation, and under every circumstance; will not communicate flame, and the metallic properties it has acquired, will effectually resist the attacks of insects. Nor do the advantages of this process end here. The most porous, the softest, and of course the cheapest woods, are rendered equal, in point of usefulness, durability and strength, to the hardest and best descriptions of timber, Wood thus prepared, is still susceptible of the finest polish; and, moreover, by the use of given solutions, can be dyed throughout, with many of the most approved colors."

The process of Payne is now adopted in England, France, Germany, Russia, etc. It is used on the rail-roads of France, with the medal of Louis Napoleon, and the timber for the Panama Rail-Road is to be *Panized.* The wood will neither warp nor shrink. The expense of preparation is comparatively trifling.

9.—PHONOGRAPHY,

Which means writing according to the sound: but if any one expects in this way to change all the literatures on earth, he has more faith than we. Mr. Ruffin Stroud, a Baptist clergyman, claims to have been the inventor of this system, and has called at our office to exhibit a pamphlet which he published on the subject, in 1839, at Tuscaloosa, Ala. He now hands us his alphabet, and proposes to deliver some lectures, though in New-Orleans, it is likely, he will not be over-crowded with hearers. Men who travel these recondite ways, must not expect very much sympathy. The last thing in the world to bring to New-Orleans for a market is metaphysics, and the last thing in the world to recommend a man here, that he is,

> In logic a great critic,
> Profoundly skilled in analytic:
> He can distinguish and divide
> A hair 'twixt south and south-west side.

We have only space now to give Mr. Stroud's vowels, diphthongs and compounds, and to wish him every success which his most ingenious system could realize. If we lack faith, that does not take from his merits, which we are happy to acknowledge throughout:

The primary or unincompounded vowels, monothongs or tones. The sound of each is its name.

OF QUANTITY SHORT.	OF QUANTITY LONG.
u—f-u-ll	a—a-pe
ŭ—u-nder	ā—a-ir
ŏ—o-dd	ē—e-ll
ĭ—i-n	ī—o-rm
ĕ—e-bb	ō—o-ld
ă—a-nd	ū—o-z-o
ŭ—a-nt	

Compounds.

h uch-ch-arm
j—u-J-ohn

Intermedial compound. Its sound is its name.

ŭ—p-oa

Diphthongs. The sound of each is its name.

ō—o-y-l
ū—o-u-r
ī—i-ce
ā—a-ye

10.—DECLINE OF NORTHERN AND GROWTH OF SOUTHERN SLAVERY.

We have on one or two occasions spoken of the Essay by E. B. Bryan, of Charleston, entitled "The Rightful Remedy," addressed to the Slaveholders of the South. The author has condensed a great deal of valuable information upon the subject of Slavery, considered in almost every point of view, and upon a great many collateral topics. We deem the publication of such documents highly valuable in enabling us to give a reason for our faith, and we think in particular, that the labors of Mr. Bryan deserve high appreciation. His politics are, of course, of the Carolina School, with which we differ in this, that we believe the end is *not yet!* There are "wise delays," "masterly inactivities," *rashness* which imperils all, and loses all, and stubborn *indifference*, which deserves to have nothing to lose, in the affairs of men and states, and never was there a time when the South required more wisdom from on high to guide her selection. Even rashness itself sometimes assumes the shape of wisdom. "There are instances," says Bishop Butler, in his Analogy, "of reason and real prudence preventing men from undertaking what it hath afterwards appeared they might have succeeded in by a lucky rashness," &c., &c.

"The importation of negroes into the British American colonies commenced during the reign of Queen Elizabeth, under the immediate supervision of Sir John Hawkins. During the succeeding reigns of James 1st, Charles 1st and 2d, the slave trade in the British colonies steadily and rapidly increased; and Great Britain far outstripped any other nation in the world, in the extent to which she carried the trade.

In the year 1793, Great Britain imported more than half the number of slaves imported by all the European powers put together. From the year 1700 to 1786, the number of slaves imported by British subjects into the island of Jamaica alone, was *six hundred and ten thousand;* or about seven thousand one hundred every year. In the year 1771, *forty-seven thousand one hundred and forty-six* negroes were imported into the British colonies, in British ships alone.

Is it not difficult to believe that Great Britain, who so short a time ago was the most extensive and cruel slave-trader in the world, is the same Great Britain who is now the greatest suppressor of that very trade? The entire number of negroes said to have been enslaved (that is, transported and landed in the British colonies, for those who died on the voyage across the Atlantic are not included) by Great Britain, is over *three millions.*

For the great majority of negroes now in the United States, English traders are to be thanked. Let us, therefore, before we utter our thanks, examine our affairs, and see to what extent these thanks are due.

The census of 1790 affords us the earliest information as to the number of negroes in the country at the close of the revolution; and though there will be error, yet the error will not be very material, if we adopt that census as indicating the true number in the States at the close of the war.

The population of the free States was then as follows: Whites, 1,852,116. Free colored, 29,435. Slaves, 49,257.

The population of the slaveholding States was: Whites, 1,201,351. Free coloured and Indians, 28,265. Slaves, 646,183.

In Vermont there were 85,268 whites, 255 free colored, and 16 slaves.

In New-Hampshire there were 141,197 whites, 630 free colored, and 158 slaves.

In Massachusetts the negro trade had been prohibited in 1778, and there was not a slave (that is, a negro bondman) in the State. There were 373,324 whites, and 5,463 free negroes. In this, as in other New-England States, there was comparatively little necessity, and less profit, for the peculiar labor to which the African disposition is adapted, viz: agriculture on a large scale; for the negro is dissatisfied on a farm, his predilection is decidedly for the large plantation, on which reside fifty or a hundred of his associates; he there has every facility for that merry and blithesome intercourse, the love of which is a striking characteristic of the race; whereas, the lonesome life he would lead on a small New-England farm would be distressing to him. The climate of these States is against the health and comfort of the negro; his native home is under a tropical sun. and notwithstanding he can endure, without serious inconvenience, the extreme degree of heat incident to such a climate as Africa's, he is utterly averse to the frigid blasts of winter. There not being any means by which money could be made in these States, through the medium of slave labor within their limits, is the chief cause of its never having been resorted to on a larger scale.

In Rhode Island the slave-trade was always extensively carried on until prohibited by law. The rum distilled in the West Indies was carried to Africa to purchase negroes, and the negroes purchased in Africa were carried to the West Indies to purchase rum; this profitable trade was continued by those interested in it, to the latest possible period. It was the source of wealth to many of the people of Newport. The population of this State was 64,470 whites, 3,407 free negroes, and 948 slaves.

In Connecticut there were 232,374 whites, 2,810 free negroes, and 2,764 slaves.

In New-York there were 314,142 whites, 4,654 free negroes, and 21,324 slaves.

In New-Jersey there were 170,954 whites, 1,762 free negroes, and 11,423 slaves. For about six or eight years previous to 1790, there had been a remarkable increase in the number of slaves, and an equally remarkable decrease in the number of free negroes. But for a space of over forty-five years, it is to be observed that the increase of the black population (including both slave and free) was at the same rate as that of the white population. At this time the principal pursuit of the people of New-Jersey was agriculture, and that on a small scale; a kind of farming not calculated to enhance slave labor, though perhaps able to support it. And it is said by a writer, who traveled all over North America and the West Indies, when preparing his history, that agriculture (in this State) had not been improved to that degree, which, from long experience, we might rationally expect, and which the fertility of the soil, in many places, certainly encouraged. Evincing either a want of enterprise on the part of proprietors, or a fault in the system of labor; the latter cause is, perhaps, that which may most reasonably be assigned, for no one can doubt the energy and enterprise of the people of New-Jersey. This is a good instance of the unprofitableness and misapplication of slave labor in the Northern States.

In Pennsylvania there were 424,079 whites, 6,557 free negroes, and 3,703 slaves.

In Delaware, which is more assimilated in climate and natural resources with Maryland and Virginia than any other State, lying, as it does, in the same latitude, and possessing similar natural features, we find a greater proportion of slaves than in any State north of it. There were 46,308 whites, 3,899 free negroes, and 8,887 slaves. This is the last of the free States which then held slaves.

Since that census was taken, all the 45,371 slaves held in these States have disappeared, and the current which swept them away, has borne along with it we cannot tell how many times that number from the Southern States, through the agency of those good abolition gentlemen, who never fail to let "charity in golden links of love, connect them with the brotherhood of man;" the essence of which golden links of love is the golden rule, "rob Peter to pay Paul," or rob white to pay black. In all these States the white population has regularly and rapidly increased; but the negroes, where are they? Some have been sent to their father-land, Liberia, to set up a model republic, and to enlighten and amend the civil code of Ethiopia. Some have gone the way of all flesh, through sheer want of that same thing, wherewith they might have been nourished and kept alive but for want of it. Some have emigrated Westward, and the glory of their enlightened minds have shed lustre on the name of Ohio. Some choice spirits among them are the pride and boast of divers Northern penitentiaries and almshouses. And some remain, the sportive imps of fun and frolic, in the large cities of the North; and have their annual and semi-annual exhibitions, for the benefit of their gaping brethren of a paler hue; of the spontaneous effervescence of the spirit of liberty fresh from their American bosoms. And for the rest, they are among the most *influential* and *respectable* citizens of the Northern community.

In Maryland there were 208,649 whites, 8,043 free negroes and Indians, and 103,036 slaves.

In Virginia there were 442,117 whites, 12,866 free negroes and Indians, and 292,627 slaves. It must be remarked here, that the increase of the slave population of Virginia, for fourteen years preceding this census, was less than it had been for a century before; owing to the fact, that about 30,000 slaves died of the small-pox or camp-fever, caught from the British army; or were inveigled off, while Lord Cornwallis was roving over the State.

In Kentucky, then in its infancy, there were 61,133 whites, 114 free negroes, and 12,430 slaves.

In North-Carolina, there 288,205 whites, 4,975 free negroes and Indians, and 100,571 slaves.

In Tennessee, there were 5,813 whites, and 1,161 slaves.

In South-Carolina, there were comparatively more slaves than in any other State; the population being 140,278 whites, and 107,094 slaves. A great loss in slave property was incurred by this State during the revolutionary war, and was, comparatively speaking, about three times as great as that met with by Virginia. During the three years the British were in possession of Charleston, they stole away and sold in the West Indies, no less than 25,000 negroes.

In Georgia, there were 55,156 whites and 29,264 slaves. The circumstances connected with slavery in the early settlement of this State, present a striking contrast with those of Massachusetts and other New-England States; in these latter, slavery was originally introduced and considerably practised, but as the population increased, hired labor took the place of slave labor. In Georgia exactly the reverse was the case. The original "Board of Trustees for the settling and establishing the colony of Georgia," consisting of twenty-one opulent and humane gentlemen in England, prohibited the use of *negroes* in the colony, and the importation of rum. By this one ruthless stroke of philanthropy, the settlers of Georgia were deprived of the two-fold blessings enjoyed by their more fortunate neighbors of Rhode Island; *they* could accumulate wealth by trading in Africans and rum. But Georgia was designed for a free State, and Africans were not to be used, neither rum. This was about the year 1732. The plan was a theoretical one, and was, perhaps, the worst that could have been adopted; it was certainly productive of the most pernicious consequences to the prosperity of the colony. The paramount object of the trus-

tees being to raise silk and wine, they deemed it inexpedient to introduce slave labor. And in addition to this, the colony being at this early period, a kind of barrier between Carolina, on the one side, and the Spanish settlement and St. Augustine, on the other, the trustees fell into the very general, though equally erroneous belief, that negroes would rather weaken, than strengthen its defensive powers. These were the chief reasons why the settlers were prohibited from employing slaves; but the absurd restriction had a visible effect. It was found impracticable in such a climate, and without African labor, for the colony to flourish; the enterprise, therefore, proved a failure. In a country so rich, with a climate so favorable, and a soil so productive as that of Georgia, the colonists, nevertheless, gradually disappeared, and effectually deserted the enterprise; because they were convinced they could never succeed under such impolitic restrictions.

The trustees finding that the colony was languishing under their trans-atlantic care, resigned their charter, in the year 1752, to the King of England, and the deserted colony became a royal government. History informs us that, at this time, "the vestiges of cultivation were scarcely perceptible in the forests, and in England all commerce with the colony was neglected." But, immediately on the government being changed, the people became possessed of the same privileges which their neighbors enjoyed; prominent among which, was the privilege of cultivating their rich lands, by the only profitable means, which is no other than slave labor. Several years elapsed, however, before the value of the lands became generally appreciated. And about the year 1760 a spirit of enterprise sprung up, which has ever since been a characteristic of this State. And it should be particularly observed, that no portion of the population, under the new laws, increased so rapidly, and no system of labor became so generally disseminated, as that of the African slave.

The experiment has, therefore, we think, been fairly tried, both North and South have had ample opportunities to discover the interest and policy of their respective sections. All the New-England States have tried slave labor, but it was not found profitable, and was abandoned. In the South, the State of Georgia was, for a period of twenty years, not a *free*, but decidedly a *white* colony. White labor was found here to be incompatible with the climate; slave labor was introduced; and in the short space of thirty years, nearly thirty thousand slaves were actively employed in the pursuits of agriculture. And, at the present day, slave-holding Georgia will favorably compare with any State in the Union."

11.—THE CITY OF THE SILENT.

On the consecration of Magnolia Cemetery at Charleston, William Gilmore Simms, Esq., read a poem with the above title, which being now published in very handsome pamphlet style, he has kindly sent to our address. The poem traces the progress of sepulchral rites from early times and through various nations, down to our own; and in the notes upon it, the author has brought to bear a great deal of learning by way of illustration. We had not conceived, with all our high appreciation of Mr. Simms, that his research extended so far, and that he could, with so much facility, adopt and apply in their own tongues, the wisdom of Greeks, Latins, and Hebrews. These notes must have high interest with the curious in antiquarian matters, and there is no subject which admits of more interesting speculation and comment than the *Burial of the Dead*, such as it has been practised in the different periods of history. We would be pleased to analyze Mr. Simms' poem and make some extracts for the reader, but space will not admit. It is a production of merit, though not equal as a whole to other metrical efforts of the author. Mr. Simms writes good English, never sacrifices sense to sound, has some affectations, a cultivated imagination, and a fund of practical sense. If not born a poet, he has succeeded in making himself a pretty fair one, Horace to the contrary notwithstanding. His sonnets are the best of his efforts in that line. In prose fiction, however, he is at home, and by far in advance of any Southern author: witness Guy Rivers, Melichampe, or more lately, that fine production, the *Lily and the Totem*. The industry of Mr. Simms amazes us.

We give a short extract from the poem, observing that the last line sounds but flatly, and mars the excellence of the whole paragraph. Besides, is it not an equivocal compliment to say of Mr. Calhoun, he died "*late* for his own glory—that is, he should have died sooner?

"There rest the Pinckneys, Gadsdens, Rutledges—
You column honors Marion—and the spire,
White shafted, 'neath the sun that glows like fire,
Our city reared in sadness, but in pride,
To one who, battling in his harness, died
Late for *his* glory, for *our* peace too soon—
The wondrous man and statesman, our Calhoun."

12—BURNING OF A CANE-BRAKE.

We have a pamphlet, by A. F. Olmsted, A. M., illustrated by an engraving, showing

the extraordinary variety of whirlwinds occasioned by the burning of a cane-brake in north Alabama. The flames and smoke ascend after a most singular manner, and give rise to some curious investigations, which we have not space to follow with the ingenious author. We extract a description of the cane-brake:

"The cane, as is well known, belongs to the order of Grasses (Gramineæ, family Avenaceæ.) It grows to a height of thirty-five or forty feet, although but an inch or two in diameter at base, and has a round, hollow stem, with knots every twelve or fourteen inches. At the top there is a head of foliage, brush-like in appearance, made up of long linear leaves. The canes are met with on the banks of all the rivers in the extreme Southern and South-western States, particularly in the States of Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas. The rapidity of their growth is wonderful. It is reported that young plants sometimes increase ten inches in length in a single night, and a large tract of land in a favorable situation will become covered with full grown canes in an incredibly short period. They form dense thickets, the stems often standing but an inch or two apart, although rising thirty-five or forty feet. They thus constitute a barrier impenetrable by man and large animals, and consequently become a refuge for all kinds of small animals. Through the thickets there are occasional passages due to streamlets or some variation of soil. There are occasional large trees here and there in a cane-brake, which probably started before the cane covered the land; but almost all other vegetation is excluded. In clearing such land only a few simple tools are employed—as a carpenter's adze, or an axe, or a heavy kind of hoe, called a "cane-hoe,"—and a single blow is sufficient to divide the stalk. The laborer grasps the cane with one hand, and, as he cuts it, throws it behind him and passes on. In this way, an acre of land is soon cleared. To prepare it for the plough it is only necessary to fire the cane; as the roots are, for the most part, near the surface, they are consumed at the same time, and the land is then ready for immediate tillage. From the ease with which it is cleared, and from the fertility of the soil, (which may be accurately determined by the size of the canes,) cane-land is preferred above all others in the region.

"The canes lie for a month or six weeks to dry, and then are gathered into heaps and set on fire in several places at once. As soon as the burning begins, the air that is confined in the hollow jointed stalks, and also the watery vapor, expand and burst the canes asunder with a loud report. These explosions occurring from a vast number of canes at the same time, produce a continued roar like the discharge of musketry from an immense army, while the flames roll on with great rapidity. No other sound besides this continued roaring is heard in the progress of the fire. This scene, therefore, differs widely from fires of brush and timber, such as those described in the thirty-sixth volume of the Journal of Sciences, which produced whirlwinds accompanied by thunder."

13.—LETTERS FROM THREE CONTINENTS.

Letters from Three Continents. By M., the Arkansas Correspondent of the Louisville Journal. New-York: Appleton & Co.

The author of this most entertaining book is Matthew F. Ward, Esq., son of our excellent fellow-citizen, Robert J. Ward. It consists of a series of letters, written in a free and felicitous, but often careless vein, from London, Paris, Berlin, the Danube, Constantinople, Cairo, Alexandria, Thebes, etc.; and discussing manners, habits, institutions, incidents of travel, etc. Those from Constantinople and Egypt have a higher and special interest. The author carried with him some of the strongest prejudices of a republican, and was likely to be led into error by them in judging of foreigners, as they are in judging of us in their hurried tours and sketch books. The truth is, no people have a monopoly of the good things of life, and the excesses of popular governments are as disgusting and as inveterate as those of mere aristocracies. Mr. Ward has been a close observer, and, for one so young, surprises us by his general correctness, and, wherever the subject required it, active research. He seems to have possessed the true spirit which should preside over travel. He is not of those who have eyes, but see not. There is no better school than travel, when the round of college studies is completed, and the man is preparing himself for the duties of society. It liberalizes him—enlarges his views, makes him an fait, and gives him an interest in the affairs of the great world. We are sure, from his later letters, that Mr. Ward returns home thus, and so must it be with every judicious, well-informed mind.

We had marked several passages for extract, but in a work like ours it is impossible to be as elaborate upon literary matters as we could wish. The description of the Bazaars of Constantinople, it would have

pleased us particularly to copy, as a matter interesting to our traders.

14.—MANHATTANER IN NEW-ORLEANS.

The Manhattaner in New-Orleans. By A. Oakey Hall. New-Orleans: J. C. Morgan. This work embraces a series of sketches, contributed by Mr. Hall, who was a few years ago connected with the New-Orleans bar, to the Literary World, New-York. Mr. Hall is a facetious and spirited writer, with a spice of humor, but often fails by over-coloring his pictures, or trespassing on the bounds of nature. He is fond of quaint conceits and unaccustomed phrases His pictures are, however, true in the main, and quite attractive. Every one familiar with New-Orleans, or who would be, should get the book, which will repay perusal. The subjects include quite a wide range, and are handled with much freedom. The account of the Sheet Iron Band is graphic—that of the St. Charles Hotel has a mournful interest now. As one of the author's best things, we extract from his remarks on the death of SERGEANT S. PRENTISS:

"His versatility of eloquence and profuseness of wit were wonderful. To have listened to him, is something to remember and talk of, as an event. The writer has heard Mr. Prentiss at political gatherings in the meadows of the country, when every one said, the glorious sunset-skies and the sublime mountains soaring towards them, the gorgeous landscape and delicious breezes, have inspired him; but he has heard him in the crowded, vaporish hall, surrounded with the miasma and gas of city-life, and his freshness of thought, grace of diction, and rapidity of combinations, have been equally happy and astonishing. He has heard him in a court-room almost deserted, when he unexpectedly rose to speak, although the occasion was trivial, and the question of slight moment: the room was filled, as if by magic, at the sound of his voice, and the subject, which in cooler contemplation had seemed dull and vapid, has assumed a dramatic interest. He has heard him when "human life was in debate," and prosecuting officers closed their books, judges forgot their notes, witnesses were suddenly endowed with patience, the dullest juryman brightened with absorbing attention, the prisoner seemed to forget the crisis of his position—all spell-bound by the thrilling words of the orator lawyer. He has heard his winning pathos and silver tones bidding a welcome-home to returned heroes from the bloody ground of Buena Vista, when the wounded seemed to forget their pains, the sick their distresses, and the sound in limb the perils of the past. He has heard him, in the call of charity, relax the tightened purse strings of the most miserly. He has met him at public dinners, when he bore away from the honored guest the laurels prepared for his temples."

15.—HAMMOND'S ORATION ON CALHOUN.

Like everything from the pen of this truly learned man and practical citizen, the oration on Calhoun is a finished production. Indeed, we might speak of it as a master-piece, and worthy of the fame of the great Carolinian, if any effort of the kind could be. It was not a small part of the fortune of Achilles to find a Homer. Mr. Hammond, more than any man in Carolina, in point of ability, deserved the place vacated by Mr. Calhoun, and would, perhaps, have had it, but for Mr. Clay.

Mr. Calhoun stands a Colossus in American history. The shafts of envy and malice could not harm him when alive; his memory, when dead, defies them. He stands

As some tall cliff, that lifts its awful form,
Swells from the vale and midway leaves the storm;
Though round its breast the rolling clouds are spread,
Eternal sunshine settles on its head.

We have space only for a short extract from the oration now.

"The genius of Mr. Calhoun was essentially active, and ever looking forward to the improvement of mankind. He sought, therefore, earnestly to discover the principles and theory of movement that might be onward and unfailing, yet regular and safe. In accomplishing this task, he sounded anew the depths of human nature; he reviewed the whole science of politics; he analyzed the Constitution word by word, its letter and its spirit; and he studied thoroughly the workings of our government. The result was, that he lifted himself above all parties, and became a philosophical statesman—the only true and real statesman. And it was in the wide and exhaustless field now opened to him, that he gathered those immortal laurels whose verdure shall delight, whose blossoms shall refresh, whose fruit shall be the food of the latest posterity."

16.—MASTER AND SLAVE.

Dr. Thornwell's sermon, delivered in Charleston, on dedicating a church for the colored population, is a production, such as

might have been expected from so able a divine. A more powerful logician and writer can nowhere in the country be found than this gentleman, and he has in pulpit oratory few superiors. We agree with the Quarterly in objecting to the address, that the author illiberally accuses those who doubt the unity of the human family of infidelity. This is to want Christian charity.

We had marked some extracts from the sermon, showing the duties of masters towards their slaves, and would have been glad to copy them here. We will give one of them:—

"We would say, then, to you and to all our brethren of the South, go on in your present undertaking; and though our common enemies may continue to revile, you will be consolidating the elements of your social fabric, so firmly and compactly, that it shall defy the storms of fanaticism, while the spectacle you will exhibit of union, sympathy and confidence, among the different orders of the community, will be a standing refutation of all their accusations against us. Go on in this noble enterprise, until every slave in our borders shall know of Jesus and the resurrection; and the blessing of God will attend you—and turn back the tide of indignation which the public opinion of the world is endeavoring to roll upon you. Go on in this career, and afford another illustration of what all experience has demonstrated, that Christianity is the cheap defence of every institution which contributes to the progress of man."

17.—POEMS.

The Faded Flower, and other Poems.—By Robert Josselyn. 1851. The author of this beautiful little volume is a citizen of Mississippi, whose personal acquaintance we have had the pleasure of forming. The poems are chiefly of an amatory character, evincing a great deal of genuine sentiment, and much of that universality of ardor, which almost certainly perpetuates bachelordom. Your man of *constancy*, and therefore *coldness*, plucks the first flower that comes in his way, and wears it. He is a tame mortal who would tear away at one rend the visions of the *ideal*, and settle down at once into the *real*. Behold him at five-and-twenty with half a dozen "responsibilities" clinging to his knee! *Inconstancy* is a very jewel! Only your warm, deep, soul-stirring and unselfish passions, are fleeting. Where all flowers are beautiful, and shed a wilderness of sweets upon the heart, it seems a crime, a sacrilege, to choose between them, and to elevate one above all the rest, at least longer than it is blooming before us. If this is Josselyn's experience, friend Josselyn, it is ours.

We quote a poem from the collection, which is of the "constant" kind, but then every page has a new name—*constant to all!*

I AM THINKING OF THEE.

I am thinking of thee—I am thinking of thee,
Wherever I wander, by land or by sea,
At home in my study, abroad on the way,
Thine image is with me by night and by day;
It cheers me in sorrow, sustains me in pain—
For I feel I must live till I meet thee again.

I am thinking of thee—I am thinking of thee,
Though circled by beauty and fashion I be;
But jewels may sparkle, and bright eyes may shine—
They cannot eclipse the mild lustre of thine:—
There is nothing I hear, there is nothing I see,
So lovely and dear as the memory of thee.

I am thinking of thee—I am thinking of thee,
And hope sweetly whispers thou thinkest of me;
As pensive I gaze on the star of the west,
Which, pure as thy spirit, seems watching its rest,
I fancy in dreams thy young bosom may yearn
For the hour and joy of the wanderer's return.

18.—THE SOUTHERN AND WESTERN GUIDE.

Our neighbor, J. C. Morgan, kindly hands us a neat little volume, with this caption, illustrated with several handsome maps and engravings, and containing a vast quantity of information upon every matter interesting to southern and western travelers, in the way of routes, scenery, distances, etc., etc. It is done in elegant style, and is one of the most valuable pocket volumes one could have in this traveling age. It is published by the Appletons, and is the only work of the kind extant.

Having noticed Morgan, we take the opportunity of saying to strangers visiting New-Orleans, they will find his assortment of stationery, plain and fancy; annuals, light literature, magazines, and even the most substantial authors, very complete, and deserving of patronage.

19.—RELIGIOUS CULTURE OF SLAVES.

Here is a wide field of duty, which opens upon masters throughout the South, if they could be left in quietude by northern cant

and hypocrisy. Dr. Whiteford Smith, one of the most eminent and eloquent divines of the South, said, in his late sermon before the legislature of South Carolina:

There is a singular fact, connected with the history of slavery among us, which seems to have escaped public notice, and which conveys a most important moral lesson. In the early periods of our history, this institution was viewed at the South with an evil eye. It was commonly regarded as a hindrance to the prosperity of those states in which it existed. So common was this feeling at the South, that many of our youth were sent for their education into the free states. Thousands, who were born and reared among us, looked forward with hope to the day when we should be able to rid ourselves of a slave population, and when our territory should become the abode only of the free. At this time there existed among this great body of people no Christian Missions. They lived and died in as utter heathenism as did their Pagan progenitors. No man cared for their souls. To speak, therefore, of their emancipation, was to address the philanthropy and Christian feeling of the human heart.

A little more than twenty years ago, attention was first turned to their religious culture. It was remembered that they were human beings—that though they were our property, they were also our fellow-creatures. It was discovered that their oral instruction in the elementary principles of practical and experimental religion, was compatible with the public safety, and even tributary to the master's interest. To our own state belongs the honor of having originated this enterprise, and it stands associated with a name, of which South Carolina has always been proud. Since that time, in many of the slaveholding states the different churches have engaged in the work of teaching them their moral responsibility, their duty to God, and to their masters.

But the public mind has now received another direction. Missionary efforts, for the salvation of the negro race, have turned the attention of Christians to the more calm and correct appreciation of slavery. They found the authority for its existence in the Bible—they discovered its obligations and duties sanctioned by Divine Revelation. The more its discomforts and inconveniences were modified and alleviated, the firmer hold did it take upon every Christian heart. And when the battle-cry of fanaticism was raised in its first serious attack upon the slave institution, its first bold repulse was from the Christian Church, whose adamantine fortification was the Word of God!

20.—LITERATURE IN NEW-ORLEANS.

By the time this can appear, three works will have been issued from the press from New-Orleans authors, which, as soon as received, we shall elaborately notice.

1. *Kendall's Illustrations of the Mexican War.* We have seen one copy of this magnificent work, which consists of 12 large illustrations, colored, and perfectly true to life, of the different battles, etc., from the siege of Vera Cruz to the taking of the capital. They will make a splendid gallery when framed. The letter-press is beautiful.

2. *Gazarre's History of Louisiana.* This is to be published in the English language, by Harper & Brothers, in one large volume.

3. *The Laws of Mexico, etc.* By Gustavus Schmidt, Esq. This will be very useful to our lawyers, and to those of Texas and California.

Blanchard & Lea, of Philadelphia, inform us of having forwarded the following works, which will be noticed in our next:

Knox's Races of Men.
Physical Geography.
Kennedy's Life of Wirt.
Lewis's Sportsman.

21.—CLASSICAL PUBLICATIONS—HARPERS' ANTHON'S SERIES.

1. *A new Classical Dictionary* of Greek and Roman Biography, Mythology and Geography, partly based upon the Dictionary of Greek and Roman Biography and Mythology. By WM. SMITH, LL. D., Editor of the Dictionaries of Greek and Roman antiquities, and of Greek and Roman Biography and Mythology. Revised, with numerous corrections and additions. By CHARLES ANTHON, LL. D., Professor of Greek and Latin languages in Columbia College. New-York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 82 Cliff-st. 1851.

This volume is one of a series of classical works, which Dr. Anthon has prepared with his usual care and accuracy, for the benefit of our young countrymen who are engaged in colleges and seminaries, in the useful and pleasing task of storing their minds with classical learning. The main object of this publication is to facilitate the progress of the student in acquiring a correct knowledge of the biography, mytho-

[illegible] and geography of the ancients. Such a work has been a great desideratum; for although there have been works of this description, a large proportion of them are full of errors, as Dr. Anthon has shown by a [illegible] in his preface, in which he has set forth the reasons which induced him to revise Dr. Smith's work, and publish this edition. To use Dr. Anthon's own words:—"The present work is the revised edition of the English one, and will be found, the editor believes, greatly improved, as well as much more complete. It is not, however, designed to, and, in the editor's opinion will not, supersede his own "Classical Dictionary," published in 1841, since the articles are purposely brief, and results only are stated without that fullness of detail which is desirable to the more advanced scholar and the educated man of leisure; but it is intended for the use of those whose means will not allow a more expensive, or their scanty time the use of a more copious work; in other words, it is meant to take the place, by reason of its convenient size and low price, of Lempriere's old Dictionary, which, with all its absurd errors and defects, still has a lingering existence in certain parts of our country, on account of its cheapness. On this head, the English editor speaks strongly; in point of literary or scientific value, Lempriere's Dictionary is dead—"*requiescat in pace*"—and to put it into a boy's hands now as a guide in classical matters, would be as wise and as useful as giving him some mystic treatise of the middle ages on Alchemy, as a text-book in chemistry. The present work contains all the names of any value to a school-boy occurring in Lempriere, and a great many not in that work, while the information is derived from the fountain head, and not from the diluted stream of French Encyclopædias."

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2. *A Grammar of the Greek Language*, principally from the German of Kühner, with [illegible] from Matthiæ, Buttman, Thiersch and Rost. For the use of Schools and Colleges. By CHARLES ANTHON, LL. D. New-York: Harper & Brothers, [illegible] 1850.

It will be remembered that Dr. Anthon published, several years ago, a grammar of the Greek language, which was very favorably received. The object of the present work, is to supply the deficiencies of the previous one, by presenting this in a more enlarged and complete form. In order to effect this more thoroughly, he has had recourse to the German grammarians, especially to Kühner, who is one of the most eminent scholars and learned philologists of the age. He has also incorporated into the volume many valuable additions from Matthiæ, Buttman, Thiersch and Rost; so that we may consider this edition the most perfect that has ever appeared in this country.

Prof. Drisler is entitled to a share of credit, in rendering such valuable assistance, in presenting this grammar, in so correct and useful a form, for the benefit of the rising generation.

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3. *A System of Ancient and Mediæval Geography*, for the use of Schools and Colleges. By CHARLES ANTHON, LL. D., Professor of Greek and Latin languages in Columbia College, New-York, and Rector of the Grammar School. Omnia mortali mutantur lege creata,—Nec se cognoscunt terræ vertentibus annis. New-York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 82 Cliff-st. 1850.

This volume is intended as a text-book for the student who desires to obtain an accurate knowledge of ancient geography and history. It will be especially useful to those who contemplate a course of foreign travel, by placing it in their power to have recourse to the best sources of information, which our author has spared no pains to collect, and digest into a work in which is to be found everything calculated to interest or instruct. "The arrangement of the present volume is such as to answer for two courses of instruction: the first, a general one, confined to the more prominent and leading topics—the second, one entering more into details, and intended for advanced students; for it ought to be carefully borne in mind, that geographical and historical studies, particularly the former, should accompany the pupil, in a greater or less degree, throughout every stage of his academical and collegiate career."

4.—*First Greek Lessons.*—Containing all the inflexions of the Greek language, together with appropriate exercises in the translating and writing of Greek; for the use of beginners: By CHARLES ANTHON, LL.D. New-York, Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff-street. 1850.

The intention of the author in publishing this volume is to render the study of the Greek language a more useful and agreeable task to beginners, and, at the same time, a method which is calculated to produce a permanent impression on their minds.—"With this view, he has appended to the different divisions of the grammar a collection of exercises, consisting of short sentences, in which the rules of inflexion that may have just been laid down are fully exemplified, and which the student is required to translate and parse, or else to convert from ungrammatical into grammatical Greek." We are happy to learn that the very flattering success which the previous editions of this work have met with, will abolish the old plan of teaching the Greek grammar, which costs so much unnecessary labor

5.—*A Greek Reader.*—Selected principally from the work of Frederic Jacobs, Professor in the Gymnasium of Gotha, Editor of the Greek Anthology, &c., &c., with English notes, critical and explanatory; a metrical index to Homer and Anacreon, and a copious Lexicon: By CHAS. ANTHON, LL.D. New-York, Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff-street. 1848.

This volume contains Greek selections from Professor Jacobs, the great German philologist, and poetical extracts from the Græca Minora of Dalzell. Alterations and corrections have been introduced, which render this work a great improvement upon the others. Copious notes are appended, in order to illustrate the true meaning of many passages that would otherwise be very obscure. Dr. Anthon expresses a desire that in this and nearly all of his classical works the assistance of that accomplished scholar, Professor Drisler, should be made known, and that he should receive the due meed of praise which he so richly deserves.

6.—*A Copious and Critical English-Latin Lexicon*—founded on the Latin-German Dictionary of Charles Ernest Georges: By the Rev. JOSEPH ESMOND RIDDLE, M.A., of St. Edmund Hall, Oxford, author of a complete Latin-English Dictionary, &c., and the Rev. THOS. KERCHEVER ARNOLD, M. A., rector of Lyndon, late fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. First American edition, carefully revised, and containing a copious Dictionary of proper names from the best sources: By CHARLES ANTHON, LL.D. New-York, Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff-street. 1849.

This is truly a great work, and one that has been long desired in this country. The English edition has been carefully revised by Dr. Anthon, and his accomplished assistant, Professor Drisler, and this American edition is now the most accurate and complete English-Latin Lexicon that is to be found. It has one advantage over the English edition, as it contains a dictionary of proper names, which is a defect in the other. We trust that it will do away with all the old dictionaries, which are full of errors and omissions, and that it may be universally adopted in our schools and colleges.

7.—*A Copious and Critical Latin-English Lexicon*, founded on the larger Latin-German Lexicon of Dr. Wilhelm Freund, with additions and corrections from the Lexicons of Gesner, Facciolati, Scheller, Georges, &c.: By E. A. ANDREWS, LL.D. New-York, Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 82 Cliff-street. 1851.

In preparing this volume, the Editor and his associates have condensed the materials they have culled from the various authors mentioned in the title-page, and especially from that distinguished scholar, Dr. Wilhelm Freund, whose Dictionary of the Latin Tongue is the basis of this Lexicon.—We extract a paragraph from the preface, which comprises the general principles which have been followed in working out the details:

"First, to retain all the definitions and philological remarks in Freund's larger Lexicon, and also, all his references to the original Latin authors, the grammarians, editors, and commentators; and, secondly, to rely chiefly for the compression of the work within the prescribed limits, upon retrenching such parts of citations as could be dispensed with, without interfering

with the particular purpose for which the citations were made, and omitting altogether such as seemed either redundant or of very minor importance. But in every such case of omission or retrenchment, the full reference to the original Latin author has been scrupulously retained, by which means the student may at pleasure not only re-construct any article found in the original work, but may also examine the quotations in connection with the context, from which they were taken. In consequence of a strict adherence to this rule, the present work is distinguished from every manual Latin-English Lexicon, heretofore published, not only by the number of authorities cited, but by full reference in every case both to the name of the classic author, and to the particular treatise, book, section, or line of his writing, in which the passage referred to is to be found."

8.—*The Metamorphoses of Publius Ovidius Naso;* elucidated by analysis and explanation of the fables, together with English notes, historical, mythological and critical, and illustrated by pictorial embellishments: with a dictionary, giving the meaning of all the words with critical acuteness: By NATHAN COVINGTON BROOKS, A. M., Professor of the Greek and Latin languages, late principal of the Baltimore High School, now principal of the Methodist Female College, Baltimore. Third edition. New-York, Published by A. S. Barnes & Co.; Cincinnati, H. W. Derby & Co. 1850.

This is decidedly the very best edition of Ovid that has ever been published in this country. There is not the slightest fault that we can find in it. The notes are copious and explanatory; the indelicacies are expurgated with a judicious hand, and at the end of each fable is to be found a series of questions for the benefit of the student. It is embellished with elegant engravings, tastefully executed by American artists. The work is altogether one that we can warmly recommend to public favor.

22.—LATE PUBLICATIONS.

A Dictionary, Practical, Theoretical, and Historical, of Commerce and Commercial Navigation: By J. R. McCULLOCH, Esq., Edited by HENRY VETHAKE, LL.D., one of the Professors in the University of Pennsylvania; Member of the American Philosophical Society; author of a treatise on Political Economy, etc.—with an appendix, containing the new tariff of 1846, together with the tariff of 1842, reduced to ad valorem rates, as far as practicable. Also, the sub-treasury, warehousing and the Canadian transit bills, of 1846. Likewise, the new British tariff, as amended by the passage of the new corn-law and sugar duties. With a table of all foreign gold and silver coin, reduced to federal currency, &c., &c., &c. In two volumes—Vol. I. Philadelphia, A. Hart, late Carey & Hart, 126 Chesnut-street. 1851.

This work is so well known as to render it almost unnecessary to speak of its merits. The English edition which appeared several years ago, acquired so wide-spread a reputation for useful and accurate information, that new editions were called for which were considerably enlarged, and all previous errors and omissions were corrected. This American edition is a re-print of the latest English edition, to which is added, a supplement at the end of the second volume, with additions by the American Editor, who states in his preface that he has confined himself for the most part to matters relating to his own country, or of especial interest to its citizens. The principal sources which he has consulted are the commercial newspapers which are published in our large cities, particularly the "Philadelphia Commercial List," Mr. Raguet's "Financial Register," and the "United States Commercial and Statistical Register," edited by Samuel Hazard.

From our own experience, we can recommend it as a work of great practical usefulness, and one which should have a place in every library and counting-house in the country.

Lives of the Queens of Scotland, and English Princesses connected with the Regal Succession of Great Britain. By AGNES STRICKLAND, author of the "Lives of the Queens of England." Vol. 1. New-York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 82 Cliff-street. 1851. New-Orleans: J. B. Steel, 14 Camp-street.

Miss Strickland has for several years been favorably known to the literary world as the authoress of the "Lives of the Queens of England." She holds a high rank among the female writers of England, of which

Miss Martineau, Mrs. Jameson, Mrs. Gore and others, are the most conspicuous. This work is a continuation of the series of her first volumes, and is written with the same discrimination, good sense, and good taste, which render her books popular with all classes. We have only received the first volume, which contains the life of Margaret Tudor, Madalene of France, and Mary of Lorraine. We will notice the other volumes as soon as they reach us. The work is to be had at J. B. Steel's, 14 Camp-street, New-Orleans, where a fine collection of standard books are always to be found.

The Bards of the Bible. By GEORGE GILFILLAN. New-York: D. Appleton & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: Geo. S. Appleton, 164 Chesnut-street. 1851.

We do not like this work as much as Mr. Gilfillan's "Gallery of Literary Men," but it is not without some merit. We discover but little originality, and that little so full of extravagance, that we are sometimes disgusted with his fulsome epithets, and his (unintentionally) impious opinions. The author says in his preface, that its main ambition is to be a *prose poem.* The poetry of it would, however, be more properly called prose *run mad.* Notwithstanding its defects, we can recommend it to all who are curious in seeing how one book can be manufactured out of another. To be had at J. B. Steel's, 14 Camp-street, New-Orleans.

The Island World of the Pacific—being the personal narrative and results of travel through the Sandwich or Hawaiian Islands, and other parts of Polynesia. By HENRY T. CHEEVER, author of "The Whale and his Captors," with engravings. New-York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 82 Cliff-street. 1851.

We have not had sufficient leisure to read much of this work, but from the hasty glance we have given, can recommend it as a very readable book—particularly interesting to religious people, and all who are concerned in the missionary enterprise in the islands of the Pacific. To be had at J. B. Steel's, 14 Camp-street, New-Orleans.

Charleston Medical Journal, Bi-Monthly. $5 per annum.

Lord and Lady Harcourt; or Country Hospitalities. A Novel. By CATHARINE SINCLAIR. Complete in one volume. Phila.: A Hart, late Carey & Hart. 1851.

A very interesting little volume, and one which we can recommend as well worth reading. The sketches are lively, and the puns are not bad. The moral tone of the work is excellent. We are sure that the ladies will be much pleased with it.

The Life and Correspondence of Robert Southey. Edited by his son, the Rev. CHARLES CUTHBERT SOUTHEY, M. A., Curate of Plumbland, Cumberland. To be completed in six parts. New-York: Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff-street. 1851.

This is a work which we would suppose might be interesting to men of letters. Mr. Southey is so well known to the literary world, that it becomes necessary for us only to state that his correspondence was with some of the most distinguished characters of his day, to insure a certain degree of respect.

Pictorial Field-Book of the Revolution. By BENSON J. LOSSING. Harper & Brothers, 1851.

The paper is of the best quality, and the print is clear and distinct. The engravings are highly creditable to American artists.

American Journal of Science and Arts. New-Haven. $5 per annum. March Number. Contents: Among other things, Grathodon Beds about Mobile; Mineral Springs of Canada; Olmsted's Whirlwinds; Two Papers by Prof. Page; Coal in China; Analysis of Tea Ashes; Scientific Intelligence; Mineralogy; Geology; Zoology; Astronomy; Bibliography, etc. This Number is the 32d of the second series. No scientific man, or gentleman, arranging a library, should be without it.

Journal of Franklin Institute. Philadelphia. $5 per annum.

North American Review. No. CXL.—January, 1851.

New-Orleans Surgical and Medical Journal. $5 per annum. A. Hester, M.D., Editor. The March Number presents many great improvements in paper and general appearance, and contains the elaborate statistics of the New-Orleans Board of Health for 1850. Great credit is due to Dr. Hester for publishing these valuable tables, and the city should contribute something towards the great expense incurred. Hereafter we may make some extracts from the report. Dr. Hester wishes us such success as shall make us lose our "Cassius-like person." Though the Doctor himself be not a "man of an *unbounded* stomach," we see no "famine yet upon his cheeks;" and if *fatness* be any recommendation, we wish him a very Sir John in rotundity.

Banker's Magazine and Statistical Register. Boston: J. Smith Homans, $5 per annum. The February Number contains 96 closely printed pages, on neat paper, and with fine type. There are 12 articles: Banking Laws of Massachusetts; Virginia, her Cotton and Wool Factories, Coal Mines, etc.; State Finances of Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky; Banking Capital of the Towns and Cities of the United States; Bank Statistics of Ohio, Maryland, South and North Carolina, Virginia, Canada; Gilbert's Practical Treatise on Banking, Part iii.; Gold Mines of California; Scarcity of Silver in Europe; Relative Value of Gold and Silver; Bank Items; Stocks and Exchanges at New-York, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, &c.; Miscellanies.

Western Journal. A Monthly: Tarver & Risk, Editors. $3 per annum. The Number before us presents an improved appearance; contains a fine Engraving, and many interesting and valuable articles.

Plough, Loom and Anvil. J. S. Skinner, Editor. $3 per ann. Philadelphia. Though differing in politics, we always notice, and recommend this Magazine, though our friend, the Editor, seldom gives us a "good morrow," as we appear before him, monthly.

Appleton's Mechanics' Magazine and Engineer's Journal. Vol. I. No. II. This Number contains several valuable papers. Among others, one upon the Mississippi, by Major Barnard, which originally appeared in the Review. The Magazine deserves favor with all practical men.

Annual Report of the Prison Discipline Society.—We shall glean for our next, perhaps, many interesting statistics from this, showing pauperism, etc, North and South.

Southern Literary Messenger. Richmond. $5 per annum. John R. Thompson, Editor. Contents: Military Establishments, U.S.; Virtue; Seclusaval; Paris Correspondence; Coincidence; Rules of Living; Antonina; The Manager; Poetry, etc.

Democratic Review.—The February Number contains a fine Picture of Thomas B. Florence, of Philadelphia; The Table of Contents includes Free-Trade; John Randolph; Vergniaud; The South, a splendid paper; Stanzas; Power of Congress over Internal Improvements; The Navy; Edgar A. Poe, etc. The editor cautions all persons against one J. J. Mayo, who is *not* his agent. The Democratic Review has won high favor at the South for its doctrines and discussions upon Slavery; and without any party preferences, we would wish it a large circulation.

Whig Review. February. New-York. $5 per annum.—This Number contains an Engraving of Jos. B. Cobb, of Mississippi. There are some good papers. That upon the World's Fair is quite stirring and startling, and contains a good deal of learning. We would like to prepare a more extended notice.

Harper's New Monthly Magazine.—This Number is, as usual, replete with valuable knowledge, and interesting, light literature. The illustrations are in the finest style. We would gently hint, that the notice on page 421, of the life of Toussaint, the negro chief of St. Domingo, had been better left out, so far as the South *is* concerned. We have no doubt its insertion was entirely an oversight. The South has long ago made up its mind in regard to this monster. Har-

per's Monthly is, perhaps, more unexceptionable on the score of Slavery, than any Northern work of similar kind.

Southern Quarterly Review.—The leading article on the Polk Administration is ably written, but we do not like the author's estimate of Robert D. Walker. The paper on Rights of the Slave States is, we believe, from John A. Campbell, of Mobile, and bears the impress of his ability. He traces the slave discussion beyond even the date of the Constitution. There are several other political and literary articles, carrying out the views and theories of the Quarterly, which are distinctly those of the Nashville Convention. Mr. Simms has also appended a large number of useful Critical Notices.

Report of the Secretary of State, Communicating Mr. Gurley's Report on Liberia.

Report of the Secretary of War, on the Geology and Topography of California.—Mr. Soule favors us with these documents. We intend to study out this subject of *Liberia*, Colonization, Emancipation, Ebony Line, etc., and give the result to our readers in several articles before long. We have already a multitude of facts, and will thank any one to furnish new ones, or, documents. Mr. Pease, the gentlemanly agent of the Society, notwithstanding our differences upon so many points, promised to place all the documents yet published in our possession. We await them.

Petticoat Government.—A Novel. By Mrs. TROLLOPE. New-York: Harper and Brothers. 1850.

Olive.—A Novel. By the author of the Ogilvies. New-York: Harper & Brothers. 1851.

Singleton Fontenoy, R. N. By JAMES HANNAY, (late of her Majesty's Navy.) New-York: Harper & Brothers. 1851.

From the hasty glance which we have had the time to give to these novels, we think we can recommend them as being among the best that we have recently had the pleasure of reading. Mrs. Trollope is so well known as a popular and sparkling sketcher of men and things in our country, that the mention of her name is alone sufficient to attract curiosity to know what she has to say about petticoat government. She strongly insinuated in her sketches, that the women wore the breeches.

Coast Directory. By Charles J. Pike.—Baton Rouge. This is in the form of a chart, which rolls up very neatly and contains a list of all the plantations, estates and towns upon the Mississippi, from the city of New-Orleans to Port Hudson, Miss., a distance of 146 miles. It should be in the hands of all the planters as a useful directory, and we hope the enterprise of Mr. Pike will meet with its just reward.

NORTHERN SLAVERY.

The following is an extract from a letter of a distinguished citizen of Connecticut, addressed to Mr. Kettell, of New-York:

"It is the custom, in many towns in Connecticut, to set up the paupers at auction every year, and knock them off to the lowest bidder—that is, to the man who will take them for the year, at the lowest price. This was the case, to my knowledge, in several counties. I have always understood it to be a general thing in Connecticut. When we were in H. they were sold to the number of sixty, for the year, to our next door neighbor, for fifteen dollars a head; and he got all the work out of them that he could, though most of them were infirm, and not able to do much: They hoed his corn and sawed his wood, and weeded his garden; and being an extensive fisherman, they assisted in dressing his fish, and 'did chores' generally. They are made to work all that they are able. In H. the contractor, as I said, was a fisherman, and during the fishing season, a principal article of food for the paupers was the heads and tails of shad, which were cut off when dressed for salting. They were all lodged in a little one-story house, with an attic not to exceed 25 by 30 feet; and were all stored in together, male and female, with, as appeared to me, very little regard to decency. In case of the death of any of them, the contractor got a specified sum for their burial; and also, I think, secured the whole amount contracted for, for the year; indeed, I believe the probable death of some of them, was a contingency calculated on in making the bid; so that the contractor had a direct interest in starving them to death, or neglecting them when sick."

EDITORIAL NOTES, ETC.

We are indebted to a gentleman of the interior, for a most interesting paper upon the price of Cotton, its cost of production, etc., which was prepared for our February No., and, most unfortunately, mislaid by us, so that it cannot appear before next month. A thousand apologies for this, our first omission of the kind.

TOUR THROUGH TEXAS.

Dennett, late editor of the Planters' Banner, proposing a tour through the whole of Texas, intends to publish a series of letters in that paper, and to give information upon all points connected with the agriculture, lands, prospects, etc., of the state, exacting a small fee in return. His address will be "Care of Witter & Crosland, New-Orleans." We shall republish many of these letters.

THE BENCH AND BAR OF GEORGIA.

Our esteemed friend, Major Stephen F. Miller, of Lanier, Geo., proposes to publish a work with this title, which will, no doubt, be very rich in incident and illustration. He intends sketches of all the most distinguished barristers and jurists of the state, from the earliest times down; and invites assistance from all quarters. We know Major Miller to be eminently qualified for the task, and wish him all success. The work will be illustrated with fine engravings.

TO READERS AND SUBSCRIBERS.

Like Pericles of old, when asked of the funds which had come into his possession, we *show* what has been done with them. Look at the Review—its size, its matter, its illustrations, and then ask if we are unreasonable in asking more subscribers and more money. We have not enough of either yet. So *pay up*, on all hands—the mails are a constant dun upon you. They knock at your door every hour. PAY UP, and aid our lists.

Gentlemen of the South, we expect you all to stand by us in this enterprise, for otherwise, like Sir John in the play, we should show "a wonderful alacrity in sinking."

As it is, it consoles us that we are in the tide of prosperity, and have as large a circulation as any similar work in the Union. But this is to say nothing—we must double that circulation, and our word is onward. "Never say fail, again!"

We have several interesting articles on hand which must be postponed to next month. Mr. Chilton's article is received—also Mr. Turner's, of Georgia. We have another Rail-road paper in progress which will rouse the South upon this subject, if anything in the power of man can.

John G. Winter

John G. Whitt

Engraved by [illegible] Sons, [illegible]

Printed by [illegible]

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SOUTHERN AND WESTERN

REVIEW.

ESTABLISHED JANUARY 1, 1846.

MAY, 1851.

VOL. X., O. S.....2d SERIES, VOL. IV., No. 5.—3d SERIES, VOL. II., No. 5.

ART. I.—THE STATE OF MISSISSIPPI.

PART III.

TREATY OF 1783—THE ACADIANS—SCHEMES OF DISUNION IN THE WEST.

After the cession by France to Great Britain, the inhumanity of the English government to the French inhabitants of a portion of the territory ceded to her by France, drove them destitute from their homes, and many of them found their way down the Mississippi to New-Orleans, where they were kindly provided with the means of settling upon the coast west of the Mississippi, and they still constitute a distinct class of the population. Many of them, doubtless, settled at and near Natchez. Their expulsion from their homes was one of the causes by which the population and wealth of the French colony were augmented.

In the year 1770, a spirit of adventure prevailed in the English Colonies, which led numerous emigrants to the West. The Mississippi River did not limit their explorations. The King of England had held out inducements for emigration to Florida, and a water communication of 2,000 miles afforded a comparatively easy access to it, from Virginia and North Carolina. The point of destination was the Walnut Hills, (now Vicksburg,) Natchez, Bayou Sara, and Baton Rouge. Before the summer of 1773 had ended, four hundred families from the Atlantic sea-board had advanced to the Monongahela and Ohio rivers, and descended in boats to the Natchez country.

Early in February, 1764, the old French posts, including Natchez, had been garrisoned with British troops. It was now presumable that the whites would be safe from the Indians. But, at a bend of the river at Fort Adams, four hundred men, under Major Loftus, in keel-boats, ascending to the Illinois posts, of which he had been appointed commandant, received a destructive discharge of fire-arms and arrows from the Tunica Indians, who were concealed on both

sides of the river. The whole flotilla, after feeble resistance, suffered themselves to be borne back by the current, beyond the reach of the enemy. Many were killed, including Major Loftus, and many wounded. A village now stands where Fort Adams stood, and bears the same name. It was formerly known as Loftus's Heights, in commemoration of this tragical event.

When it was ascertained that the English jurisdiction had been extended over all the settlements east of the Mississippi up to the Walnut Hills, the French, then numerous, expressed great dissatisfaction, and some even removed to the west side of the river, south of Manchac, in order that they might again be within French jurisdiction. But on receiving assurances that their religion, lives and property would be protected, the greater part remained.

After the extension of the British authority in 1765, and until the revolt of the American colonies, England encouraged emigration to the upland region, extending from the Yazoo River to Baton Rouge, by liberal grants of land. In 1768, numerous emigrants from Georgia, the Carolinas, and New-Jersey, settled in the regions drained by the Homochitto and the Bayou Pierre, within fifteen miles from the banks of the Mississippi River. Not long afterwards a body of Scotch Highlanders arrived, and colonized the branches of the Homochitto, about thirty miles east of Natchez. This colony was subsequently augmented by new emigrants, and bore the name of New-Scotland.

In 1773, the greatest number of emigrants arrived; after this period, the revolutionary war checked emigration till the year 1777, except that, after the declaration of independence, many of the loyal subjects of Great Britain, disliking the appellation of "British tories," are said to have retired from the new states, and to have emigrated to the region between the Yazoo and Baton Rouge; the inhabitants of which took no part in the hostilities against England, but remained faithful subjects to the crown.

During this period, England encouraged monopolies of trade by her subjects, and the introduction of African slaves, in large numbers. From Fort Bute, (built in 1764, on the north bank of Bayou Manchac, near its junction with the Mississippi,) she supplied the settlements of Louisiana with many English commodities, and with slaves —the introduction of which had been prohibited by Spain. To prevent this illicit trade with Spanish subjects, the Spanish governor had a fort constructed on the south bank of the Manchac, opposite to Fort Bute.

But the period was close at hand when Great Britain was destined to lose all the possessions which she had for so many years been contending for. During the revolutionary war troops were sent from Virginia to the Illinois posts, and a bloody and protracted frontier war resulted in the loss of her north-western possessions, including the post of Kaskaskia. During this frontier war, the federal government was supplied frequently from New-Orleans with provisions and munitions of war, transported in barges up the Mississippi as far as Fort Pitt, under the command of American officers. The friendly disposition of

the Spanish authorities in possession of the west side of the Mississippi River greatly facilitated this mode of transportation. Thus, during the years 1777, 1778 and 1779, the American posts on the Ohio and Upper Mississippi rivers, were supplied regularly with military stores, and even artillery. It was, however, a hazardous enterprise;—and although the inhabitants of the British possessions *east* of the Mississippi River had not participated in the war, yet it was deemed necessary by Captain Willing, under whose command these enterprises were conducted, to ascertain whether the Natchez settlers would continue neutrals, so far as not to interrupt the transportation of supplies from New-Orleans to the Ohio posts. He accordingly landed with fifty men, in 1778, at Natchez, and took the sense of a public meeting, convened for the occasion, and entered into a convention of neutrality with them. He was informed, however, that several individuals would not be governed by this convention. These he resolved to place in military custody. He therefore had them conveyed, by night, from their houses, with their slaves and other personalty, to his vessel, and detained them till they gave a pledge not to violate the convention of neutrality. They were then set at liberty, with their property, except one individual, a pensioner of the British king, whom, on account of his energy and attachment to the interests of the British crown, he conveyed to the city of New-Orleans. There he gave him the liberty of the city, upon his parole, till his return to Natchez. Disregarding his parole, he returned to Natchez, resolved on vengeance. Not many weeks afterwards, on the return of one of Captain Willing's boats from New-Orleans, it was decoyed to the shore, at Ellis's Cliffs, and was there attacked by twenty-five ambushed men, who fired a sudden volley upon his crew, which killed five men and wounded several others. The boat immediately made for the shore, and the crew surrendered. The boat was commanded by Captain Reuben Harrison, and the concealed party by Colonel Hutchins, aided by Captains Hooper and Bingaman. This occurred in 1773. On his return from New-Orleans, Captain Willing landed at Natchez, and levied a heavy contribution upon his vindictive enemy, for the benefit of the American army.

This outrage on the Americans accelerated a determination of the Spanish authorities, previously formed, in view of an expected rupture between Great Britain and Spain, to subjugate that part of Louisiana east of the Mississippi River, which had been ceded by France to Great Britain; and the Spanish governor planned a vigorous campaign, to commence as soon as war between England and Spain should be declared. All those within this region who had emigrated from the eastern colonies prior to the revolution, were anxious to see the British authorities excluded from the country, and many of these were willing to aid personally, and by their influence, the Spanish governor, in reducing the British posts in the south, east of the Mississippi. The governor did not long want an opportunity of executing his plan.

In 1779, Spain, as an ally of France, declared war against England, and Don Bernard de Galvez, colonel of the Spanish armies, and

governor of Louisiana, a man of genius and ambition, having received early intimation of the fact, immediately concerted measures with such energy, that on the first of September he was before Fort Bute with 1,400 men. After a brave resistance, for five days, the fort was carried by storm, and demolished.

Reinforced by several hundred militia, including many Americans, he marched to Baton Rouge, then garrisoned with 400 regular troops and 100 militia, and abundantly supplied with arms, ordnance, and all kinds of military stores. On the 21st of September, after a brisk cannonade of several hours, the commandant capitulated, by surrendering to the King of Spain not only the post of Baton Rouge, but all that portion of the region then known as West Florida, including the forts at Natchez, Amite, and Thompson's Creek. Thus Great Britain lost the remnant of her possessions in the valley of the Mississippi.

Galvez, pushing on his conquests, succeeded, during the year 1780, in subjugating the whole province of West Florida.

Subsequently, East Florida yielded to the arms of Spain; and by the treaty of 1783, England confirmed to his Catholic Majesty the possession of both East and West Florida.

During the operations of Galvez against Pensacola, the English colonists in the Natchez district, having learned that a powerful British armament was off the coast of Florida, for the recovery of his Majesty's possessions, attempted to overpower the Spanish garrison at Fort Panmure, at Natchez, and reinstate British authority over that portion of the province.

Having secured the aid of a large number of Choctaw warriors, they raised the British flag on an eminence above the town of Natchez, in full view of the fort, and commenced their operations for its capture. During the night they planted their cannon near the fort, but a heavy fire, the next morning, compelled them to retire. During a day and night, a moderate cannonade was kept up between the besiegers and the fort; at length the garrison, having been persuaded that the fort had been undermined with a train, which was to be ignited on the following day, capitulated, on condition of being permitted peaceably to retire, and march to Baton Rouge. But in a short time intelligence was received, that a Spanish, instead of a British fleet, had arrived, with a reinforcement for Galvez. This filled the insurgents with consternation; and mindful of the fate of O'Reilly's victims ten years before, they sought safety in flight. Many perished with fatigue and exposure, and others fell into the hands of the Spanish authorities, and were treated as rebels.

On the 29th of July, 1781, the civil and military commandant of the fort at Natchez commenced measures for the punishment of insurgents. Arrests and confiscations commenced. During September and October, the wealth of twenty fugitive rebels had been seized for confiscation. Before the middle of November, seven of the leaders, who were prisoners at New-Orleans, were convicted and sentenced to death, but were afterwards reprieved by the governor-general.

Thus ended the first revolt of the Anglo-Americans against the

Spanish authorities. The second one, thirty years afterwards, was more fortunate, as will be hereafter related.

In 1783, by a treaty of peace between Great Britain and the United States, the southern boundary of the latter was established at the 31st parallel of north latitude.

By the same treaty, Great Britain confirmed to Spain all the Floridas, south of the 31st degree of north latitude.

Peace having been thus concluded between the belligerent powers contending for possession of the Mississippi valley, emigrants from France, *the Mexico-Spanish Colonies*, the West Indies, and the United States, commenced pouring into Louisiana.

At the same time the king of France caused a large number of exiled Acadians to be brought into the colony, to join their countrymen, who, thirty years before, had fled from Acadia, to escape British persecution, and settled in Louisiana. Agriculture and commerce, which war had so long suspended, once more roused the colonists to that peaceful emulation which alone confers true and permanent prosperity and happiness on the human race.

In 1785, the official census showed a population exceeding 33,000 in Louisiana, including the Natchez settlements; of this number lower Louisiana contained 28,000, of which 5,000 belonged to New-Orleans.

In 1785, Galvez removed his head-quarters to Cuba, of which he had been appointed Captain-General, and to the government of which Louisiana had been attached, until the regular appointment of Galvez's successor.

About this period, the Catholic clergy, jealous of the influence of the Western people of the United States, attempted to introduce the Inquisition into Louisiana. But Miro, judge of residence, caused the zealous ecclesiastic, who had been entrusted with this enterprise, to be seized while asleep, and safely conveyed on board a vessel, in which he was transported to Spain.

The king of Spain now signified his desire that the British settlers, (who, by the treaty of 1783, were required within eighteen months to quit the territory,) should be permitted to remain, and enjoy all the privileges of Spanish subjects; and, to induce the Irish to remain, the judge of residence caused the Natchez district to be supplied with Irish Catholic priests, who arrived early in the year 1786.

In 1786, Miro received his commission as successor of Galvez. He must have found the colony full of turbulent spirits, inasmuch as his first edicts prohibited gambling, duelling, and the wearing of concealed weapons. Under his administration the colony flourished. Population multiplied, commerce increased, and the trade with the settlements on the Ohio and its tributaries had become extensive and valuable.

It has been already observed, that owing to some doubts respecting the boundaries between the Spanish domain and Georgia, difficulties had arisen. Georgia had now extended her settlements west, and come into contact with the Spanish settlements north of the 31° of north latitude; Georgia claimed all north of that degree to the

north of the Yazoo River, under Oglethorpe's charter, and Spain claimed all which had been, at any time, actually subject to French dominion.* This whole region, containing a population of 10,000 souls, was now in possession of Spain. Commissioners had gone from Georgia to New-Orleans in 1785, to demand a surrender of this territory, and an acknowledgment of the line of division as fixed by the treaty of 1783. But the subject had been referred to the general government. Georgia had, by a legislative act, on the 7th of Feb., 1785, erected the county of Bourbon, near the Mississippi River, giving to citizens of the United States, residing there, preference over any foreigner to lands within this territory. This act, after the whole subject had been referred to the federal government, was repealed.

A new source of controversy was now arising, which was destined to deprive Spain of all the possessions which she had wrested from England. This was the natural right claimed by the people of the north-western territory to navigate the Mississippi river to New-Orleans and the Balize, free from any tax or other molestation or hindrance. The trade between the inhabitants of the North-western Territory and Louisiana, had become very important; and Spain, desirous of making it a source of revenue to herself, established ports, and exacted harbor duties, and other charges incidental to commerce. The western traders considered these charges unjust and oppressive, and only paid them because compelled by military force. Many even resisted every attempt made to enforce payment, and were, consequently, seized, fined and imprisoned, and subjected to great expense, loss and delay. In some cases, cargoes were confiscated, and the owners driven destitute back to their homes. During the years 1785 and 1787, these occurrences roused such a feeling of animosity and thirst of vengeance among all the western people, from the banks of the Monongahela to those of the Cumberland and Tennessee, that there was needed only some daring military spirit to bring about an invasion of New-Orleans, in the event of the general government failing to obtain by negotiation the privileges indispensable to the prosperity of the western country.

In 1787, a separation from the Atlantic states, and the erection of an independent government, with the view of wresting Louisiana

* The curious reader will find the opinion of the court, delivered by Judge Clayton, in the case of Montgomery and others *vs.* Ives and others, reported in 13th vol. of S. & M.'s Miss. Reports, full of interesting information on this subject, which will fully repay the labor of its perusal. Judge Sharkey, who, though he concurred in the opinion of the court, thought "there never had been an extension of the northern boundary of West Florida above the 31st deg. of north latitude," supported this position by the following very concise and forcible argument: "The colonies became then independent, with defined boundaries. If that memorable event put an end to the authority of Great Britain over the territory above the 31st deg. of north lat., it must have done so *because that territory* was *within the limits* of some *one of the revolting colonies.* The declaration of independence did not extend over any territory not within some one of the colonies, nor was there any acquisition of territory by conquest, not lying within their boundaries. If the territory above the 31st deg. of north latitude was part of the colony of Georgia, the authority of Great Britain over it ceased when Georgia became independent. If, on the other hand, it was part of West Florida, the authority of Great Britain did not cease, as Florida was not one of the revolting colonies. The treaty did not cede territory to the colonies, but only acknowledged their independence as states, with known boundaries."

from Spain, was seriously contemplated, if not actually planned. Under these circumstances, General James Wilkinson, a merchant of Kentucky, obtained from the Spanish authorities a license to introduce western produce into New-Orleans, free of duty, on the condition that he would use his influence in conciliating the western people, and encourage their immigration to the Spanish colonies, by relaxing the system of imposts, as to all who should settle within their limits, east of the Mississippi River. For a time the Spanish minister, hoping to derive some profit to himself, connived at this plan; but being foiled in his expectations, suddenly ordered a strict enforcement of the impost laws.

At the request of Governor Miro, Wilkinson prepared a memorial to the crown, respecting the relations of Spain with the inhabitants of the North-western Territory, which was transmitted to Madrid. This document was composed with much address.* The views set forth in it were adopted by his Majesty as the basis of the future administration of affairs in Louisiana.

It is probable that his Majesty was influenced by the intimation contained in this memorial, that an alliance might possibly be formed between his Spanish subjects, in the valley of the Mississippi, and the Republican settlements of the West.

There was at this period great danger, either of an invasion of Louisiana by the people of the North-west, or of an alliance between the two, and the formation of a separate government. The apparent tardiness of the general government in negotiating with Spain respecting a privilege, so indispensable to the western people, as the right of navigating the Mississippi, had alienated the attachment of the latter; and a rumor that the American minister had consented to postpone the assertion of this right for twenty years, produced an indignation among them, which the Spanish king hastened to avail himself of, by sending emissaries to Kentucky, to enlist the prominent men of that and the adjoining states in the treasonable scheme of throwing off the federal authority, and forming an alliance with Spain.

But these machinations were happily frustrated, as well by the change of policy in the administration of Spanish affairs at New-Orleans, as by the declaration of the general government of its intention to insist upon the free navigation of the Mississippi, according to the treaties of 1763 and 1783, to both of which Spain had been a party.

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* See 1st Monette's Valley of Mississippi, p. 473.

ART. II.—THOUGHTS ON A RAIL-ROAD SYSTEM FOR NEW-ORLEANS.

HOW NEW-ORLEANS IS LOSING WESTERN TRADE, AND SHOULD SUBSIDIZE THE WEST AND HER INTERESTS IN ARKANSAS AND RED RIVER RAIL-ROADS, AND MORE ESPECIALLY IN THE LOUISVILLE AND MEMPHIS ROAD.

No. II.

[The first paper by Mr. Hewson having been so extensively sought and commended, it gives us great pleasure to present the second. The minds of the people here are aroused to the exigencies of the times, and will, we hope, in good season, *act*. The Southern and Western Rail-road Convention, to meet here in the fall, will give a great impulse to the movement. We begin to see, too, that our financial facilities are too restricted by virtue of the new Constitutional *proviso*.]

The evils under which New-Orleans labors, in reference to her rail-road system, appear to be twofold:—firstly, those affecting her through the misapprehensions of her tributaries; secondly, those affecting her through her own indifference. The following remarks are divided under these two heads. The creation of a trade to meet such losses as New-Orleans must unavoidably submit to, though of immense importance, is in prudence a secondary consideration; the protection of such of her trade as she can retain by action being evidently her first duty. On this ground, then, and on the further ground of obtaining more point and force for the argument, the first head into which this postscript is divided had better be illustrated, by reference to what is shown in the February number of the Review, to be *the* great conservative measure for New-Orleans—namely, a Memphis and Louisville Rail-road.

Economy of transport should suggest to Louisville the wisdom of bettering her connection with the head of safe and regular navigation on the Mississippi River, rather than of opening up new outlets to the Atlantic in the face of tolls, that, owing to the great distance of carriage, must evidently preclude all reasonable expectations of a change of trade. A road that offers a cheap and regular outlet for cotton, corn, tobacco, castings, and such other heavy articles of production, is surely more beneficial to a community, and more profitable to a proprietary, than one that offers an outlet for only mere travel, and for such costly articles of consumption as silk handkerchiefs, kid gloves, and broadcloths. The latter is a luxury—the former a necessity; one addresses itself in its general relations to the interests of a few retail merchants; the other addresses itself in both its local and general relations to the interests of the farmer, the laborer, the manufacturer, —all those broad and true sources of state wealth that may be denominated *creative* industry. Seven hundred and fifty miles of rail-road will be necessary to connect Louisville with the Atlantic seaboard at Charleston; and at the freights charged on the Georgia rail-roads, the cost of transporting even pig-iron over this length of rail-road will amount to one dollar and sixty cents per hundred lbs.;

while for bagging, rope, tobacco, and the like, the freight from Louisville to Charleston would reach so high a figure as two dollars per one hundred lbs. Evidently, therefore, the heavy trade—the only trade—of Louisville, must still follow the Mississippi River; and does it not on this account also behoove the merchants of Louisville, instead of indulging impotent longings for the Atlantic, to apply their resources to the remedying of that very serious injury to their prosperity, the frequent and long-continued interruptions—the uncertainty and delay of communication between them and the market to which, in defiance of their Atlantic outlets, they will still be constrained to send their merchandise?

Since the days of Darius, the progress of civilization has been westward. This law of progress is very strikingly illustrated in the valley of the Mississippi. Manufacture has crossed the Alleghanies in the wake of her elder sister Agriculture, and is already looking for tracks into the west and south-west. The time is not far off, when all the avenues of industry in these western and south-western states will be filled up—when the extraordinary variety of their agricultural and mineral productions shall be employed in creating all the variety of manufactures entering into the wants and luxuries of an highly advanced civilization. Where, then, will be—in fact, where now are, the great markets of this valley? It requires no uncommon foresight to define these as the cities on the Mississippi River. The alluvial district—the great delta of the Mississippi—will buy from, and sell to, the mineral and mountain districts. Why, then, it may be asked, do cities with a destiny so palpable as that of Louisville and Nashville—the former situated on the boundary between the region of breadstuffs and the region of cotton—the latter situated in the very midst of corn and cotton, of coal and iron—delay to quicken their progress to follow the footsteps of their queenly destiny, by opening up safe and unbroken communication with that great arterial line of carriage—that great central line of exchange, the Mississippi River?

But while this great valley will, before long, present the rare spectacle of a community perfectly self-sustaining and independent of the world outside of it, the manufactures of the valley, notwithstanding all their peculiar advantages, cannot in the outset compete successfully with the more advanced manufactures of Europe in the markets of Asia. A ship canal, between the Gulf of Mexico and the Pacific ocean, addresses itself, therefore, for at all events some time to come, to only the agricultural interests of this valley; and, indeed, one of the first results of throwing open to the world, by means of this canal, the markets of the starving barbarians of China and Japan, must be a change in the destination of that great staple product of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois—namely, breadstuffs. It will be granted on all hands, that this effect will at all events lead to competition with the European consumers; and admitting this much, it is not jumping at a conclusion to infer, that, with the great producing area of central Europe restricting prices in the European markets, the rude barters of China will far outbid the restricted and more precise exchanges of Great Britain. The Tehuantepec Canal will, therefore, make the cities

on the Gulf of Mexico the direct agents of exchange between the teeming abundance of this valley and the pinching poverty of Asia. Breadstuffs will, under those circumstances, seek the shortest outlets from even the Atlantic slopes of the Alleghanies to the waters of the Gulf of Mexico; and inasmuch as this result is a sober certainty of some few years hence, what community within this valley should overlook this very important consideration in works of permanent investment and of agricultural development? Here, then, is an additional reason why western and south-western merchants and farmers should improve their connection with the most eligible point on that "main stem" of a New-Orleans rail-road system, the Mississippi River—a reason especially pertinent to the circumstances of Louisville, situated as she is at the gate through which the breadstuffs of Indiana, Ohio and the Lakes, must necessarily pass on their way to the Gulf of Mexico. On the same grounds a rail-road, striking the navigable waters of the Mississippi at the nearest point, is a work of deep and permanent interest to the city of Nashville, as representative of the breadstuff region of Eastern Tennessee and South-eastern Kentucky.

Having offered these brief arguments, showing the importance to western and south-western interests generally, and to Louisville and Nashville in particular, of rail-road connections with New-Orleans, I beg leave now to offer some remarks on the second part of this postscript—namely, the apathy of New-Orleans.

The importance of concentrating the capital of the city on the construction of the Tehuantepec Canal, is sometimes urged in justification of the indifference shown by New-Orleans to her internal improvements. To this it may be answered: the world will build the Tehuantepec Canal; but New-Orleans only will build a New-Orleans rail-road system. Not that the canal may not be made a work of deep importance to New-Orleans; but that *the measure of this importance is her facility of intercourse with those very districts from which she is now almost totally excluded.* Why should commerce come through the Tehuantepec Canal to New-Orleans rather than to Matagordas, Mobile or Pensacola? Only unless business shall call it there; and of what avail then will a Tehuantepec Canal be to New-Orleans when business shall have fled from her over the rails of New-York, Charleston and Mobile? This canal will certainly give an immense impulse to the cities of the Gulf; and especially so to New-Orleans, if she only avails herself of the change of trade which will assuredly result from it, to wrest back from the Atlantic cities her old dominion by a large and comprehensive system of rail-roads, grafted on her great natural trunk-line, the Mississippi. If she fail to do this, the canal is but another magnificent plume in the cap of Mobile. Without the canal, she can maintain herself; without rail-roads, she cannot.

Almost all the rail-roads on this side of the Alleghanies follow an east and west direction, and contemplate discharge into the cities of the Atlantic sea-board. This is not only contrary to that law which would define the line of exchange as the line of variety of production, but is also at direct conflict with that still more impera-

tive law which defines the line of economical transport as the line of trade. True, the *supply* of manufactured goods, and the *demand* for agricultural produce, have lain to the east of us; but the attempts to reach this point of supply and demand over a direct route, have been encumbered by a transport-tax so intolerable, the conclusion may be very reasonably drawn, that there are additional causes why certain cities in this valley have been led to enter on expensive, but for the purposes of general trade, unavailing connections with the Atlantic sea-board. Why, for example, does Louisville attempt, by a rail-road to Nashville, to reach Charleston over a rail-road of seven hundred and fifty miles long, when a rail-road of less than half that length will enable her to reach New-Orleans by way of Memphis for little more than half the freight? Why has Nashville attempted to break up her old alliance with the "Crescent City," under the penalty of freight on six hundred miles of rail-road over inclined planes and through mountain tunnels, when one hundred and ninety miles of road, bringing her on comparatively cheap and easy grades to Memphis, would have placed her at New-Orleans for half the cost? The answer to these questions lies in the fact, that the impulse of action and the impulse of subsidies are received throughout this valley in the direction of the Atlantic cities. Nashville has been set to work—for enterprise is epidemic—by the *action* that brought a chain of rail-roads to Chattanooga; the first instinct of the popular will took that direction spontaneously, and the subsidies of Charleston confirmed it. So it is with Ohio, Indiana, &c.; a road in any of these states, with only half the stock taken, will run out its earthwork in firm faith of obtaining iron from the east. The Mississippi River lulls the mind of New-Orleans into a sort of stupid fatalism; but the thriving cities of the Atlantic have furnished abundant proof that "Fate," "Luck," *et hoc genus omne*, are but "convertible terms" for *action*. New-Orleans must therefore take an attitude to direct and control the enterprise of this valley; she must make herself felt as the politic ruler of an estranged territory—felt by both lance and largess, by *action* and *subsidy*. Rail-road enterprise seldom deigns to think of New-Orleans, and when it happens to do so, regards her as a mere sleepy, thriftless, good-for-nothing slattern. Fore-doomed and insensible, no one in the interior supposes for a moment that she would take the trouble of saying "amen" to a prayer for her salvation; that she would bid the golden magic she can command, to even stop a "crevasse" until an overflow had leaped up to her parlor windows. These are very strong expressions; but are nevertheless plain, unvarnished truths. And this loss of reputation is injurious to both the city and the territory tributary to it. Few rural districts can build a rail-road by their own unassisted resources; and, consequently, until the rural districts tributary to New-Orleans have reason to expect co-operation from New-Orleans, they neither can nor will undertake works to which they know their own means are inadequate. Thus it is that the curse—for unseemly apathy, in contrast with flourishing activity, appears a very curse—is not only perpetuated, but diffused; and thus it is that some of the more thrifty communities of the valley, re-

garding their connection with New-Orleans an intolerable misfortune, endeavor to break through her toils by even hopeless connections with the Atlantic. Even as New-York, as Boston, as Philadelphia, as Charleston, as Mobile, as all the cities that aspire to greatness, subsidize throughout the length and breadth of their territory, so also must New-Orleans subsidize throughout the length and breadth of her territory; only through the agency of subsidies and action can she hope to exert any influence whatever in staying the destruction that is falling on her fast and heavily. So much, then, on the causes producing, and the remedy controlling the spontaneous conspiracy existing against New-Orleans throughout her whole territory. It may be profitable in the next place to glance at the extent to which, in a particular portion of her domain, that conspiracy has already succeeded; the extent of its success under a few weeks longer continuance of inaction on the part of New-Orleans; and the possibilities which, assuming the non-interference of New-Orleans, limit the extent to which this success might be carried.

New-Orleans has already permitted the resources of her territory to pass to the uses of her opponents, and must therefore enter the field, not only deserted, but also opposed, by all the agencies which she could have enlisted at the outset for herself. The extent to which she has injured herself on all hands by neglecting her interests, may therefore be understood by pointing out the array that has been lost to her, or won over to the purposes of her enemies from even a small portion of her territory. Arkansas, within two months, has frittered away on local trifles $500,000, which might have been pressed into the service of a Little Rock and Memphis Rail-road; Memphis has partly alienated from New-Orleans $750,000 in her subscription to the Charleston Road; Nashville has turned away from the cause of New-Orleans—$750,000 is her subscription to the Chattanooga road—in all two millions of dollars lost irretrievably to the purposes of New-Orleans' interests. It is unnecessary to enlarge on this head by pointing out the loss of way-subscription, of congressional donations, &c.; sufficient has been said on the subject to show that the past apathy of New-Orleans has cost her very dearly.

The amount of injury that must result to New-Orleans, from a further continuance, however brief, of this expensive indifference to her interests, is even still more alarming than the amount which she has lost by her past indifference. A very pointed evidence of this lies in these two facts, 1st: that Louisville, Nashville, and the State of Kentucky, in their promotion of a rail-road between Louisville and Nashville, are about to subscribe two and a-half millions of dollars to the purposes of Charleston; whereas, these two and a-half millions, together with perhaps even one million and a-half additional from state and county subscriptions in Tennessee, may be pressed into the services of New-Orleans by an immediate, decisive, and liberal action in the matter of her great *protective* road, a junction connecting the Louisville and Nashville road, at Nashville, with the Mississippi River at Memphis. The public prints show that a spirit is alive on this subject in Nashville, Memphis, and Western Tennessee;—that a

convention has been convened to meet at Jackson, Tennessee, on the 1st of May, for the consideration of the question; and as its success is doubtless prejudiced, if not endangered, by competition with that instrument of danger to Memphis and New-Orleans, the Mobile and Ohio Rail-road, the people of New-Orleans, if even now true to themselves, must take immediately some commanding attitude in reference to this Memphis, Nashville, and Louisville Junction Rail-road. The energetic co-operation of New-Orleans, in this matter, is absolutely necessary to retain for her the travel and the custom of Louisville and Nashville, for all those light and valuable articles of merchandise that always follow the cheapest, quickest, and safest route. The emissaries of Mobile will probably attend this convention; and it behooves New-Orleans, if at even the twelfth hour she would save the wreck of her greatness, to send representatives, able and influential men, to this convention, with authority to sustain the friends of this Louisville and Memphis road by *liberal* and *specific* encouragement. *Four millions of dollars are at issue* directly in this matter; and the success of Mobile in obtaining the state aid of Tennessee for the Mobile and Ohio road—an end which the success of the Jackson Convention will control—will increase the loss arising to New-Orleans from a continuance of her apathy in this particular instance, to some five millions of dollars. *A fore-doomed destruction only can account for inaction in such a case as this.* We shall see. The second case to which reference has been made, as illustrative of the cost to New-Orleans of further inaction, is this:—Mr. Downes, an honorable representative from Louisiana, has obtained a reference to the Committee on Public Lands for a bill asking Congress to donate some eight or ten hundred thousand acres of land to a rail-road from Fulton, on Red River, to Providence, or some other point on the Mississippi River. Whatever may have been the reasons for naming Providence as the whereabouts of the eastern terminus of this road, it is very clear that the interests of New-Orleans in this part of her basin would be more surely and more effectively promoted by placing that terminus at Natchez. The interests of New-Orleans demand that the connection with Fulton be made at Natchez, for these reasons:—1st, Natchez is situated on an air-line between Fulton and New-Orleans; 2d, Natchez is nearer to New-Orleans than to Mobile, by ninety miles; 3d, Natchez is sufficiently distant from Mobile to defeat any attempt on the part of that city to carry from or to the river either the traffic or travel of the road; 4th, Natchez being nearer than Providence to New-Orleans by one hundred and eighty miles of navigation, while it is farther from Fulton by only thirty miles of rail-road, the trade of New-Orleans with Red River will save by the connection at Natchez 10 per cent. in transport, and from ten to fourteen hours in time. Now, if, as will be shown in the following paragraph, Mobile *can* operate on Red River over the Fulton and Providence Road, here is seen another loss of at least half-a-million of dollars, which may be wrested, in this congressional donation, to the purposes of Mobile, by the suicidal connivance of New-Orleans. But how can New-Orleans bend this project

to her interests?—By only one means, action and subsidy; and thus it is, that throughout the wide territory tributary to her, must she establish a *moral* by means of a *moneyed* influence to protect and foster her wide-spread trade; and thus it is, that every hour of indifference heaps on her head an almost irreparable ruin.

The possibilities that limit the extent to which the trade of New-Orleans may be contracted, will at once point out, by an extreme case, the danger of inaction at any point, and illustrate the prudence of establishing a control over such works as that contemplated by the Hon. Mr. Downes' bill. Assume that the subsidies of Mobile control the management of a Fulton and Providence road; and that the same influence controls the management of an extension from Providence to Mobile. Under these circumstances, it requires no very deep foresight to perceive how a dexterous directory, by charging high freights on the portion of the road between Fulton and Providence, could carry *through*-traffic on the portion between Providence and Mobile for *half* freights, and thereby reducing in effect the distance between Providence and Mobile to one-half, draw off from New-Orleans even the heavy freights of the Far-West. The apathy of New-Orleans makes this result quite possible, even though the possibility involves utter absolute desertion of her streets. This trade would be an immense prize for Mobile; and truly such marked ability and active intelligence as that of Col. Philips, and a few other leading men in Mobile, are only too well adapted to play this deep and dangerous game with profit, for a city that already owes him and them the achievement of her commercial greatness. Indeed, existing circumstances would facilitate such a game. The license, "Providence or *some other point on the Mississippi River*," asked for in the bill of Mr. Downes, will, doubtless, through the organized influence of Vicksburgh and Jackson, settle down ultimately on Vicksburgh, *a point on a direct line between Fulton and Mobile*, but fully eighty miles north of the direct line between Fulton and New-Orleans. Vicksburgh, besides being on the air-line between Fulton and Mobile, can be operated on by Mobile with a road, some ten miles longer, no doubt, but still under far more favorable circumstances—cheap construction, unbroken continuity, and the like—than by a road from New-Orleans. In addition to all these predisposing facts, it may be remarked, that the Vicksburgh, Jackson and Brandon road, following very nearly the straight line to Mobile, *some fifty-five miles of a road between Fulton and Mobile is already in successful operation.* In this way, then, it is seen that New-Orleans can lose the trade of even upper Louisiana; and that in addition to the self-evident possibility of such a loss, all the existing circumstances of the case may be moulded with much advantage to the accomplishment of that possibility. All that is necessary to effect this is, simply a continuance of the energy that enriches Mobile, and the indifference that robs New-Orleans. Notwithstanding, therefore, that the Mississippi River will retain for New-Orleans the heavy trade of Northern Louisiana, *provided* she takes proper steps to control the freights of the roads penetrating it, yet an injudicious location of those roads, a location encumbering by circuit-

ousness her relations with it, and facilitating by directness the relations of a rival with it, must necessarily divert from New-Orleans not only the travel on these roads, but also that particular class of the freights carried on them—packages and express goods generally—which address themselves specially to the interests of her wholesale merchants.

The foregoing remarks have pointed out briefly the policy necessary to be taken by New-Orleans in promoting her rail-road system; —the losses in money that she has sustained by neglecting that policy to the present time;—the further losses in money she will be made to suffer by neglecting it for even a few weeks longer, and the danger to which she has exposed, and still exposes, even her very local trade, by having either before or now neglected that policy. On all these grounds it may be safely concluded, that unless New-Orleans gird herself up quickly, she will lose even the last resource remaining to her, her corporate credit. Let her, therefore, be up and doing, before an array of sober figures—declaring her weighed in *a balance*, and found wanting—stand in the way of the negotiation of her bonds. Let her take up ground in the matter of a Natchez and Red River Rail-road, before the donation of public lands be wrested to the uses of Mobile. But let New-Orleans, before all other things, make a bold stroke for the immense sum that is about to pass over to Charleston, in the subscription of Louisville, Nashville, and the State of Kentucky, to a Louisville and Nashville Rail-road—a sum of $2,500,000. The enthusiasm attracted to this road, coupled with the general approval of state aid to public works, will secure a Memphis and Nashville road, in state and county subscriptions, at least $1,500,000; and this fact swelling the stake at issue in this instance to $4,000,000, the omission of New-Orleans to secure it for her own purposes will show, in the few cases indicated, a loss in money—not to speak of loss in character—of six millions of dollars. This Memphis and Nashville road—Memphis and Louisville junction road—being of such overwhelming importance to New-Orleans, some service to the cause of that city may be done, by a few remarks in reference to its advantages to Western Tennessee, and to the cities of Louisville, Nashville, Memphis, and New-Orleans.

Jackson, in Western Tennessee, is 350 miles from Mobile, and 85 from Memphis. Now, assuming that the present freights on the Mississippi, between Memphis and New-Orleans, be not at all reduced—that they must, will be demonstrated by-and-bye, as a natural consequence, on the construction of a Louisville and Memphis Rail-road —the proportion laid down in the February number of the Review, as the difference of transport on the river and the road, will make the distance of Memphis from New-Orleans equivalent to two hundred miles of rail-road. Jackson being removed, suppose 90 miles from Memphis, may, therefore, be regarded, in reference to transport, 290 miles from New-Orleans, while, as stated before, it is 350 miles from Mobile. Here, then, is a difference of sixty miles of rail-road in favor of New-Orleans, which, inasmuch as the two markets may be considered equally good, will show, at the rate of five cents per ton per mile of road, a bonus of 15 cents per 100 lbs. of freight, from

the country around Jackson in favor of New-Orleans. On grain, and other heavy crops, this saving would amount to from one-and-an-half dollars to three dollars a year on every acre under cultivation. This is a tangible fact for the farmers of Western Tennessee. But even assuming that such were not the fact, on what grounds could the aid of the State of Tennessee be extended to a Mobile and Ohio road, a road passing through an extreme end of the state, and building up a city outside the state, to the prejudice of a road, running for its whole length through the very heart of the state, and terminating in the two chief cities of the state? The possibility of state aid to that portion of the Mobile and Ohio road running through Tennessee, to the exclusion of a Memphis and Nashville road, is another illustration of the position to which New-Orleans has reduced herself by her criminal indolence.

To New-Orleans, Memphis, Louisville, and Nashville, the importance of a Memphis and Louisville Rail-road is immense, on the ground of the influence of that road on river insurances and river freights. The existing system of carriage on Western waters is a serious drawback on the best interests, industrial, commercial and agricultural, of Western States and Western Cities. It is unnecessary to inquire here what the cause may be, whether it arises from a combination of boat-owners in the one case, and of insurance companies in the other, or from the natural operation of a slovenly system in both cases; but, be this as it may, there is very little doubt that an intolerable wrong is put upon our farmers, merchants, mechanics, and the people of the river states generally, by a tariff of freights, laid on irrespectively of distance and difficulty, and a tariff of risks, laid on irrespectively of distance and danger. The freights and the insurances between New-Orleans and Memphis, between New-Orleans and Louisville, between New-Orleans and Pittsburgh, are not at all graduated according to the respective degrees of time and of hazard; consequently, the business centering at Louisville, and that centering at Memphis, is, assuming the Pittsburgh freights and insurances reasonable, oppressed evidently with an exorbitant transportation tax.

But the present system of carriage on our waters is open to objection, on the ground of not only an unfairly graduated tariff, but on also an additional ground of extravagant cost. The Chicago Convention has exposed the startling fact, that *the cost of transport on Western rivers is*, if my memory serves rightly, *five times the cost of transport on Lake Erie*. The impulse felt throughout all other sections of the Union, will leave the river states and river cities far behind, if a transport tax, so disproportionally oppressive, is allowed to weigh down their progress—a tax that may be estimated, by reflecting that it is levied on a trade amounting annually to several hundreds of millions of money.

Much of the extravagance of river freights are certainly referable to the slovenliness of the existing system; but the working of the system would seem to indicate some cause besides this. Pittsburgh is twenty hundred miles from New-Orleans; the navigation as high as Memphis—a point 800 miles up stream—is safe and easy; yet, though the remaining twelve hundred miles are difficult and danger-

ous, transport between New-Orleans and Memphis averages more than one-half that between New-Orleans and Pittsburgh; whereas, in consideration of the difference in distance and facility, the navigation between New-Orleans and Memphis might, in comparison with that between New-Orleans and Pittsburgh, be very safely set down at one-fourth. If, therefore, boats can afford to work from New-Orleans to Pittsburgh for the present freights, they can equally well afford to work between New-Orleans and Memphis for one-half of the present freights. Seeing from this that our existing means of carriage, encumbered as they are with an utter want of system, may be made to reduce the cost to one-half, by an equitable graduation of freights and insurances, may it not, under countenance of the fact that the present cost is five times as high as that on Lake Erie, be concluded with almost absolute certainty that the influence of rail-road regularity will reduce the present cost of transport on our rivers to at least one-fourth?

A Louisville and Memphis rail-road will establish, in conjunction with it, two lines of first-class boats, one on the Upper Ohio, connecting with the rail-road at Louisville, the other on the Lower Mississippi, connecting the rail-road at Memphis with New-Orleans. These boats being part and parcel of the enterprise, will be under the same management, and therefore by the influence of public interests —the cities of Louisville, Nashville, Memphis and New-Orleans— on the action of the company, will, so far as consistent with an honorable discharge of duty to the stockholders, subserve directly to the public good. The time-telling punctuality of these rail-road boats will work the trade of those giant rivers into a system of the most perfect business-like economy; the certainty of freights on arrival at either terminus, will, in combination with the spirit and the plan of management, reduce the heavy transport-tax with which the energies of the tributaries of New-Orleans are so intolerably oppressed. These lines of packets will, however, act only in conjunction with the rail-road; the Ohio valley, between Memphis and Louisville, will not participate in their advantages. Reducing in effect the distance between New-Orleans and Memphis to at most one-fourth, the impulse of this cheap transport will be first received at Memphis; from Memphis it will be transmitted over the rail-road to Nashville, where it will act like a magnet in attracting to her furnaces the rich metals of the Cumberland slopes; from Nashville it will rush along the rails to Louisville; and Louisville forcing it on by the additional impulse of her own line of boats, will transmit it in the teeth of Cincinnati to a point far up the Ohio. The existing burdens will continue to weigh down other river cities; but a new and strong spirit, an increased and commanding power, will be felt at New-Orleans, at Memphis, at Nashville, along the line of the road, and with twofold vigor at the point where all the influences meet—at Louisville. Thus it is that a new life will be infused by this road into New-Orleans and all her tributaries; thus it is that Louisville, in her mortal struggle with Cincinnati, will be disencumbered of the causes that tie her hands; thus it is that in western and south-western trade, public spirit will

supersede private interest, punctuality take the place of irregularity, economy succeed exorbitance; and thus it is that all these conditions of industrial advancement, drawing us in effect nearer to our great natural market, will give an energetic impetus to our trade, and an active stimulus to our industry.

ART. III.—THE EDINBURGH REVIEW AND THE SOUTHERN STATES.

In the Edinburgh Review for October, 1850, is an article in review of Lyell's Second Visit to the United States; of the Speech of Webster on Slavery, in the Senate, March 7th, 1850; and of some other books and pamphlets connected with America. We read this article some time ago, and as we read, almost involuntarily drew our pencil around some passages which had no tendency whatever to render our southern blood very cool.

The object of the above article is to show the present state of "civilization" in the land of Washington. The astute Edinburgh has made the discovery that we are a tolerably civil people, and would be more so, were it not for the rudeness of the western states, and the slavery of the southern. Yet it consoles itself with the idea, that New-England, with her common schools, her abolition, her Daniel Websters and Horace Manns, will bring such an amount of *civilization* into the common mass, as will leaven the whole lump. Abolition is to do away with the evil of southern slavery, and the civilization of the East is to counteract the barbarism of the West. It says:

> "As the spirit of the slave interest is embittered, the *moral spirit of abolition* is reanimated and reinforced; and as the *barbarism* of the West presses upon Congress, the *civilization* of the East puts on its armor, and stands on more vigilant ground."—*P.* 191.

The tenor of the article is, that America is a great and prosperous country, but that the slavery of the South, and the "barbarism" of the West, are blots upon her escutcheon. That New-England must control this slavery and barbarism. That she is the nation—that she is America. That she is superior in every respect to every other portion of the Union; and especially that she is superior to the South, which is worthy of damnation on account of slavery. Hence it is, that the Edinburgh Review, unaccustomed to speak well of the United States, now lauds them unsparingly, because it considers New-England the United States, and New-England is the land of abolition.

It is too frequently the case—indeed we might say it is always the case—that the Southern States, in any work upon America, are reviled as a sin-polluted community of people, disgracing the confederacy, and tolerated only because they may some day be converted, and turned from the error of their ways, by negro-loving, witch-burning New-England, into the paths of redemption and political salvation. Now we are quite tired of this, and we think it time for the South to ward off the foul imputations cast upon her character—imputations thick,

poisonous and fiendish, as the darts leveled by "Apolyon" against "Christian."

Now, what is there so commendable in England, that the Edinburgh Review should look upon the slavery of the Southern States with such holy horror? Has this journal no pity upon its white slaves at home, that it should come across the ocean to shed its crocodile tears over the negro, whose dog is provided with more meat in a day than the British subject gets in a week? Has it no sympathy for the millions of the East, whom its country enslaves, and whose cruelty to them has furnished material wherewith to make a Hastings infamously immortal? What does it say to the bloody scourge which its country holds over the bare back of Ireland? What does it say to one nation's triumphing over another, impotent and imbecile in the shackles of its intoxication? What does it say to the thousands of starving, dying operatives in the factories of its country—men, women and children, sold in bondage along with the factories—mere human brutes, the snapping of whose thread of life causes their masters less concern than the breaking of a thread of elongated cotton fibre?

As the medicines which a skillful physician applies, show the nature of the disease he seeks to eradicate, so the remedial laws passed by a country show the nature of the evils they seek to abolish. Now, in the Westminster Review, parallel in date with the Edinburgh we are noticing, is an article styled "Summary of the Session," giving an account of the principal laws passed by Parliament at its session in 1850, from January 13th to August 15th. Speaking of some criminal act passed at this session, it says:

"Three-fifths or more of the criminal calendar consists of juveniles; and it detracts greatly from our imagined superiorities of jurisprudence and humanity—[those superiorities, we suppose, intimated by the Edinburgh]—to think so little progress has been made in dealing with this preponderating mass of delinquency. Incessantly we have been laboring to drain off the material sewerage that endangers personal security and enjoyments, but have taken little heed of the moral sewerage not less menacing, which accumulates from the fluctuating condition of a commercial state. There is, however, not less need of outlet and diffusion for one than the other; but it is pent up in prisons, penitentiaries and solitary cells, in lieu of being transplanted to new territories, &c. * * * * *

"In no other country is the law so severe towards children, and yet the law has nowhere clearly defined what a child is—its age or other personal attribute that fixes criminal liability. Instances there are of children being capitally punished at a very tender age; and Lieutenant Tracy has had under criminal discipline ten boys under eight years old, and one under five. Liverpool may be considered a brief epitome of the extremes of present civilization; may be referred to for illustrative results of the routine course of penal treatment. In 1848, of the total number of committals, 66 per cent. were re-commitments, and 28½ per cent. had been recommitted four times. Culprits have been committed eighteen, twenty-four, twenty-five and twenty-nine times. One boy of fourteen, who had been committed twenty-four times, was five times discharged, twice imprisoned for a fortnight, once for two months, six times for three months, and sentenced to four months' imprisonment, and to be twice whipped. Is not this Dame Partington's work, or the work of the Naiads, or of Sisy-

phus? What must not Liverpool pay for criminal tuition? For mere economy's sake, would it not be wise to improve the system? Parents actually drive their children abroad to steal; pointing out the property to be stolen, and refusing food until the theft is effected. How can such children be treated as criminals, and the enemies of society? With them, crime is a profession, like that of a soldier or a doctor: the chances of conviction being similar to the soldier's chance of a wound, or the doctor's chance of catching infection. The children call the prison their "school," and designate theft by the name of "work." In London, matters are not much better: the older prisons, such as Newgate, having no facilities for the reform of juvenile offenders, and the new ones provide such comparative comforts as to become temptations for admission."—*Westminster Review, Oct.*, 1850, *p.* 72, 73.

Now, thank God, in the benighted South, guilty of the sin of having negro slaves, crime, comparatively speaking, is scarcely known. We might almost make a sweeping assertion, and say, juvenile crime is entirely unknown. We have no "preponderating mass of delinquency." We have no "moral sewerage, not less menacing" than the "material sewerage that endangers personal security and enjoyment." It has not become necessary for us to "transplant to new territories"—to banish from our states "three-fifths or more of the criminal calendar," consisting of juveniles. We have no need to send off children into exile to prevent their committing crime. We cannot boast, as England may, and as the Westminster asserts, that "in no other country is the law so severe towards children" as in our own. We can boast of no Sir John Pakingtons and Mr. Monckton Milneses introducing acts and bills into our legislature "in the way of juvenile expatriation." We are ignorant of any instances among us "of children being capitally punished at a very tender age." We have no Lieutenant Tracy, who has "under criminal discipline ten boys under eight years old," and one baby in the same predicament "under five." We have no city which "may be referred to for illustrative results of the routine course of penal treatment." We have no "parents who actually drive their children abroad to steal; pointing out the property to be stolen, and refusing food until the theft is effected." We have amongst us no children with whom "crime is a profession," and who "call the prison their 'school,' and designate theft by the name of 'work.'" We have not, we admit, arrived at that degree of "civilization," in which our people's children are sunk to so low a pitch of degradation and infamy, as that prisons "provide such comparative comforts as to become temptations for admission."

It seems, also, that Mr. Milnes, at the last session of Parliament, "proposed to make parents, in certain cases, responsible for the offences of their offspring; an innovation sanctioned by high authorities—the Recorder of Birmingham; Mr. Russell, the prison inspector; and Mr. Rushton, the able magistrate of Liverpool."* Sir J. Pakington's Act for the *extension of Summary Jurisdiction in Larceny*, extends

* Westminster Rev., Oct., 1850, p. 73.

the summary jurisdiction of magistrates from children under fourteen years to those under sixteen. The result of this is, that children under sixteen are deprived of the protection of jury trial, and left to the uncertainties of the whims and ignorance of justices of the peace. Says the Westminster: "In the existing constitution of the magistracy, especially in the country, such innovations cannot be too vigilantly watched and sparingly attempted."

Well, we have not got to that pitch in the South that we deprive children under sixteen of the right of trial by jury, and intrust their personal freedom in the hands of ignorant magistrates, by giving them "summary jurisdiction" in the case.

And why is it that we have scarcely any crime among us, and comparatively no juvenile criminals? Why is it that we have no "routine course of penal treatment?" Why is it that we do not deprive criminals of the right of trial by jury? The answer is simple: the pauper population of England and of Europe generally, is shut out by our negro slaves. Abolish slavery in the South, supply its place by European serfs, either by importation or by degrading the poorer classes among us to fulfill the menial duties of the slave, and our word for it, the southern portion of our confederacy will have numbers of juvenile criminals among its population, and others whose profession will be crime, as is now the case in England, and as is becoming the case with accelerated velocity in the northern states. It will then become necessary for us, as well as for England, to abolish jury trial, and set up in its stead the "summary jurisdiction" of petty tyrants in every neighborhood, hole and corner in the country.

In the southern states, the planter owns his slaves and makes them cultivate the soil. He feeds and clothes them well, nurses them when sick, gives them time to cultivate a small crop for themselves, and on Sunday allows them to go to whatever church they please—to go, or not go, as they please—and worship God just according to whatever creed they may wish. True, there is a penal code upon every plantation, and a wholesome restraint is exercised over the mind of the slave by the certainty of corporal punishment, if he violates the laws enacted by his master for his good government. We have yet to learn that any people, as a mass, can be controlled without some penal code.

Now, take the English white slave on the other hand. His master, instead of working him upon a plantation in the fresh air, with nature's face smiling in loveliness around him, shuts him up in a factory or mine, forcing him, day after day, to breathe an impure atmosphere, which is deadly poison to the lungs, and which will hasten him on to a certain and a premature grave. If he becomes tired of his slave, he sells him to some other owner of a factory, who pays the original master the debt contracted by the slave with him, for a scanty pittance of food to keep his own soul and body together, and to satisfy the cravings of hunger within the systems of his famished babes; and then the slave has to work for his new master until he is reimbursed for the amount paid the old master. This he is never able to do;—and thus he may be transferred from master to master, getting more

and more in debt at every transfer, until he is called upon to pay the great debt of nature, which so destroys his resources, that his inhuman master lets him sleep, and take his rest within a cold and narrow couch at last, simply because, in paying the debt of nature, he has become hopelessly insolvent, and is barred from all possibility of ever again coining the sweat of his brow, or "dropping his blood for drachmas."

The English slave has no certainty of food or of raiment. The southern negro's master is a master to assist and protect, as well as to exact labor. Not so the English master. His sole business is to drive the human machine as long as the breath that God breathed into its nostrils will expand the lungs, and drive the blood to the performance of its functions. Should the slave become sick, he has no one to watch around his bed-side, and no one steps forward and pays a physician to administer the medicine which is necessary to his recovery. Not even the self-interest of his master impels him to bestow any attention upon his slave; for he knows that as fast as one pauper sickens and dies, it is matter of rejoicing to another who steps forward in his stead, glad to be himself enslaved, so as to gather a crumb for his starving little ones. True, the emaciated form of the sick slave's wife may flit like a shadow around his bed, and his dying ear may be burdened by the cry of his squalid little ones for bread. But can this soothe the agony of the dying man—the thought that when he is gone, no one will care for the pale partner of his agonized bosom, and his houseless orphans? When the English slave sinks upon his bed of sickness, his wealthy owner thinks no more of him, save to visit his domicile after death, and turn out his family from under the sheltering roof, or to take away the last blanket that protects their shivering limbs, to pay a debt which was contracted in the life-time of the father, to prevent the offspring of his loins from dying a death of hunger.

Should the slave be less than sixteen, and have the misfortune to violate a law of the realm, either wilfully or innocently, the right to trial by jury is denied him, and the "summary jurisdiction" of a justice of the peace may summarily send him to prison, or inflict upon him such other punishment as the nature of the alleged offence may require. Should he be under fourteen years old, this same "summary jurisdiction" gives the justice power summarily to have the alleged offender publicly whipped.

When the English slave becomes old, as is rarely the case he ever does, his master is no longer a master to protect and take care of him; but, under the weight of years, the disabled automaton goes down to his grave with no strong arm to assist him, and no kind hand to ease him off to his final resting-place. Not so with the negro slave in the southern states. In his old age his master cares for him, and affords him that supply of food, raiment and attention, which is necessary for his declining years. And yet, after all this, the English master weeps over the fate of our negroes, and the *Edinburgh Review* commends New-England abolitionism!

Now, if slavery is to be abolished, let us abolish it in its worst

forms first. Let us abolish it where it proves itself a curse. And if the name of *slavery* is so odious as to require its abolition where it proves a blessing, let us put off sacrificing that which is a blessing, though it may, perhaps, bear a bad name, at least until we abolish that which, though it may not bear an offensive cognomenous odor, is in itself a curse. If we must sacrifice that which renders the Ethiopian happier in a condition of bondage than under any other circumstances, to a mere dislike of the word *slavery*, let us at least put off doing so until we can abolish a state of things which renders the Anglo-Saxon unhappy, though that state of things, in familiar parlance, is not rendered by the word *slavery*. If we must abolish slavery, let us include within the sphere of our philanthropy the plough, the serf, and the factory operative. Because a human being has the misfortune not to have an ebony skin, but, on the other hand, is accidentally cursed with being white—is this any reason we should exclude him from our efforts to make the captive free?

Another act, which was passed at the last session of Parliament, was an act for allowing a few of the Irish slaves to vote. Previous to the passage of this act, an Irishman must have had property whose nett annual income would amount to about sixty dollars. Now, if the poor wretch of a Celt has a nett annual income of something less than forty dollars, he may vote. Ireland has a population of about one and a half millions. Previous to the last Parliament, only two per cent., or 30,000 of the sons of Erin, were allowed the right of suffrage. Lord Desart affirmed, that, if a property qualification of only forty dollars a year was required of an Irishman before he was allowed to vote, it would add to the list 330,224 voters, and that this would be a "gigantic stride toward universal suffrage." "Extraordinary to relate," says the Westminster, "this was combated by a bishop, who denied, on the authority of his own statistical inquiries, that any such numerical increase would ensue." "Lord Stanley," continues the same Review, "affirmed that two-thirds of the rate-payers were not fit, from education, habits or position, to exercise the franchise; and establishing so low a standard would throw into the scale, under the influence of agitators, the whole weight of numbers against property."

We give these facts in order to show the condition of England's nation of slaves. It seems that Lord Stanley and others are afraid to emancipate these slaves, because it would throw the "whole weight of numbers against property."

There was also an act passed, entitled "An Act for Inspection of Coal Mines in Britain." This act authorizes the secretary of state to appoint inspectors, whose business it is to visit the coal mines of the kingdom, at all reasonable hours by day and by night, to see if they be properly lighted, ventilated, &c. Charlotte Elizabeth, in her work termed the "Wrongs of Women," gives us a soul-sickening picture of the manner in which English slaves are treated in coal mines. They are, or were, compelled to place collars around their necks, attach themselves to cars, and thus making beasts of draught of themselves, get down on their all-fours, and draw coal up an inclined plane, through entrances

too narrow for them to stand upright. Even female slaves, in an advanced stage of pregnancy, were compelled to perform this labor in this manner. If England, then, would confine her philanthropy to the passage of such acts as the above, for the amelioration of her coal miners, it would be far better for her and her subjects.

So great is the propensity of the English master to require undue labor of his slave, that various acts have been passed, seeking to regulate the matter. The Westminster remarks, that "it seldom happens that powerful interests or opulent delinquency cannot find an escape from" the wording of English statutes. It cites as an example the Factory Acts of 1844 and 1847. These acts were intended to forbid the working of young persons and females for protracted hours. To prevent evasion, relays or shifts were forbidden. In spite of the particularity with which the act was worded, its provisions were disregarded, on account of some want of technicality by the local magistrates, and the court of exchequer sanctioned their conduct. "All of these subterfuges were in the face of the known intention of the legislature, and the plain literal construction of the statute."

The Westminster, in its "Summary of the Session," gives us what it terms "the staple products of the session." It presents the title of about a score of acts, and out of the twenty, *fifteen* are passed in reference to the pauperism, taxation, and crime of English slaves. Think of it! Three-fourths of the legislation of one session of Parliament devoted to regulating slavery in England! And yet the Edinburgh Review hopes much is to be accomplished in the South by Yankee abolition; but seems to hope for nothing from it in reference to English slavery—simply, we suppose, because abolition has no sympathy for anything which is not negro in its character.

We have thus reviewed the legislation of the last session of Parliament, because its enactments show the state of slavery among the British masses. We return now more immediately to the article in the Edinburgh Review. We have already mentioned that every thing good, according to this article, is to come out of New-England abolition and New-England "civilization." Now, what is the fact in reference to this *civilization?* Let us take a view of it. In the first place, we are ready to admit, that in Yankee-land they have a great many common schools, and that the opportunities for every one to obtain the rudiments of a scholastic education are better perhaps than in any other country. It is true, also, that there are many books, papers, magazines, &c., published among the negro-lovers, and that the press is in a high tide of prosperity. Yet in view of the character of these, and the effects produced thereby, we are almost constrained to think that Sir William Berkeley, one of the colonial governors of Virginia, was not very far wrong when he thanked God that there were no free schools and printing, and hoped there would not be any "these hundred years." "For," said he, "learning has brought heresy, and disobedience, and sects into the world, and printing has divulged them, and libels against the best government. God keep us from both!"

No one can look at the state of things produced in the North by

the foul spirit of abolition, without seeing that the elements of disorganization which produced the anarchy of the French Revolution, are at work among them. The two principal of these elements are religious fanaticism and the steady influx of the pauper and barbarian population from Europe.

The odor of Puritanism still clings around much of the population of the North. And what was that Puritanism? It was a spirit of religious enthusiasm, which had no very definite object in view, save to make the human family suffer the pangs of purgatory. It was a gigantic, gloomy monster, stalking about through the length and breadth of the land, hanging a shroud of despair around all peace, all enjoyment, and all earthly happiness. The Fourth of July orator and the penny-post have a never-failing theme in discoursing of the virtues and the noble deeds of the Puritans. Macaulay, in his history of England, makes a remark in reference to this class, than which nothing is truer. Speaking of habit, in some portions of Great Britain, of baiting bears and other animals, he says of the Puritans who fulminated their anathemas against the spectators of these scenes, that they did not do so on account of the cruelty to the worried animal, but on account of the fact, that the lookers on seemed to *enjoy themselves!*

It is certain that the Puritans did not care for the cruelty to bears; or if they did, their bowels of mercy yearned with more tenderness over the suffering brute than over a suffering fellow-mortal. In the name of religion, they could burn at the stake victims whom they accused of witchcraft. They could pollute the sacred name of Salem, by calling after it the spot which witnessed these fiendish exploits. They could force Roger Williams into banishment, to avoid being burned at the stake for a heretic, because he could not see that they were right in wearing the livery of the court of heaven to serve the devil in. They could pass the *black* code known as the "Blue Laws."

These were some of the results of the spirit of Puritanism, called, in our day, Abolition. Disguised as it now is, we can still see the mainspring of its sentiment and action:—that is, an earnest wish to prevent people from enjoying themselves. It pretends to act through motives of philanthropy, we know. But what Mr. Calhoun says in his famous letter to Mr. King, while in France, in regard to the philanthropy of English abolitionists, is equally true of the philanthropy of Yankee abolitionists. The distinguished South Carolina Senator said, as was true, that this pretended philanthropy of England was only a cloak to conceal baser and more sordid motives. So of northern abolitionists. Jealous of the growing power of the South, whose prosperity is dependent upon slavery, so clearly shown by Mr. Kettell, a *rara avis* in the North, in a recent number of this Review, they would destroy this element of our prosperity, and consequently of our happiness. Not satisfied with preparing a stage among themselves on which may appear a Danton, a Robespierre, or a Marat, they would erect a platform at the South, on which they might witness the tragedy of San Domingo renewed and re-enacted.

Philanthropy indeed! It sleeps at its post whenever it should be wide awake. Abolition can make a great deal of noise over negroes until they are set free, and then it cannot afford them an inch of ground upon which to rest the sole of their foot. Witness the conduct of Abolition Ohio towards the emancipated negroes of Randolph, whom this great statesman endeavored, by a provision of his will, to settle upon her soil—paying too much attention, for so sagacious a man, to the protestations of philanthropy for the blacks by northern abolitionists. Not one foot of land would Ohio concede to these negroes, but expelled them absolutely and unconditionally beyond her limits. And Ohio is not singular in this. Others of the northern states look with a very jealous eye upon the existence of negroes amongst them.

The Edinburgh Review hopes everything from Northern Abolition and Northern *Civilization*. Under the head of *Civilization* it embraces religion, of course, using that word in its broadest acceptation. For, says the article:

"He (Sir Charles Lyell) is very curious about all religious manifestations, as every wise man must be, who knows how much must be inferred from them as to popular intelligence and the state of education, and the *moral heart of a community*. The faiths of the multitude must be studied by those who would know their own times, and the thoughts of the wise by those who would foresee the coming time."—*P.* 180.

Well, let us examine some of the religions of the North, as set forth by this article, deduced from the observations of Lyell:—those religions which are a part and parcel of that "civilization" from which the Edinburgh Review expects so much. This Review says, that—

"New-England is in truth a museum of sectarian curiosities. No maternal church keeps down fanaticism, and no court manners suppress or chasten the free expression of it by word and deed."—*P.* 180.

Very well; let us inspect this museum. "Sir Charles Lyell," says the article before us, "was assured by a Boston friend, that when he once attended a revival sermon,—

"He heard the preacher describe the symptoms which they might expect to experience on the first, second and third day previous to their conversion, just as a medical lecturer might expatiate to his pupils on the progress of a well-known disease; and the complaint, he added, is a serious one, and very contagious, when the feelings have obtained an entire control over the judgment, and the new convert is in the power of the preacher; he himself is often worked up to such a pitch of enthusiasm as to have lost all command over his own heated imagination."—*P.* 181.

The Review continues:

"But such a preacher belongs to a well-known genus in church history. The most memorable of them was perhaps Peter the Hermit. Religious madness is also a form of mania well-known in lunatic asylums, and out of them."—*P.* 181.

This is, *perhaps*, one of the least harmless fanaticisms of northern

"civilization." But this *civilization* has also given rise to Millerism. The 23d day of October, 1844, we believe, was the time appointed by the madman, Parson Miller, for the end of time. New-England Puritanism—or rather the same spirit which produced Puritanism—had only to be turned through another channel, and Millerism was the result. So great was the mania of this *ism*, that the "civilized" Yankees who embraced its tenets, would not gather in the products of their farms, but passed their time in watching for the destruction of all things, engaging in such revelries and orgies as might have put to blush the bacchanalian revelries of old. And if we are to credit the reports of newspapers, guided by a knowledge of the temptations as well as evils to which flesh is heir, we might well imagine that Venus herself would have looked upon the orgies of the misled assemblies of Millerites with the same pleasure with which she regarded one of the festivals devoted to her at Paphos.

Even after the 23d of October had passed, the blinded fanaticism of this maniac sect contended that the parson had only made a slight mistake in his arithmetic, and that the end was still near at hand. In Boston—yea, in *Boston*, the home and the world of the North American Review—as well as in divers other places, these people, true to their instinctive propensity penny-wards, turned their own and their neighbors' madness to account. Shops for the sale of "ascension robes" were found in the universe of the North American Review, and in various other boroughs of Yankee-land. Boston shop-men went so far as to advertise "*ascension robes* for going up into heaven!" Strange, strange madness, to think the end of time was at hand, and still stranger to think that Bostonians would have any need for such robes as these! Surely they were not designed for home consumption.

An English bookseller at New-York assured Sir C. Lyell, "that even as far south as Philadelphia"—that city which evinces its brotherly love by brother breaking brother's head in continuous riots—"even as far south as Philadelphia, there was a brisk demand for such articles, and that he knew two individuals in New-York who sat up all night in their shrouds on the 22d of October!" "Several houses," continues Sir Charles, "were pointed to us between Plymouth and Boston, the owners of which had been reduced to poverty by their credulity, having sold their all towards building the tabernacle, in which they were to pray incessantly six weeks previous to their ascension."

Sir Charles saw Macbeth performed in the Millerite Tabernacle, which was sold for a theatre, and was told by some of the party "that they were reminded of the extraordinary sight they had witnessed in that room on the 23d October of the previous year, when the walls were all covered with Hebrew and Greek texts, and when a crowd of devotees were praying in their ascension robes, in hourly expectation of the consummation of all things."

Sir Charles alleged to a New-England friend, that the numerous followers of Miller and Smith "did not argue much in favor of the working of their plan of national education;" and we will add, that

it does not argue much in favor of New-England "civilization," of which the Edinburgh Review thinks so highly. He was told, as an extenuation of this, that a great many of the Mormons came from the manufacturing districts of England and Wales, and that other people besides parson Miller had set exact times for the end of all things, and had led many astray.

"Other apologists observed to me," says Sir Charles, "that so long as part of the population was very ignorant, even the well educated would occasionally participate in fanatical movements: for religious enthusiasm, being very contagious, resembles a famine fever, which first attacks those who are starving, but afterwards infects some of the healthiest and best fed individuals in the whole community."—What an excuse! say we.—Now we are ready to admit that *education*—using the word in its limited sense—is very good in its place. But it will not stave off fanaticism. The common branches of an English education are no preventive of this disease. On the contrary, a shallow draught at the Pierian spring is favorable to it.

Then, in addition to Millerism and Mormonism, we have at the North rampant *Fourierism*, and an advocate for "HIGHER LAW" in the person of one who commenced his career in life by running away from his father's house, and seeking an asylum in the sunny South. Here he was welcomed with the warmth of Southern hearts, ever ready to lend a helping hand to misfortune, to the honorable post of teacher in Union Academy, at that time the most respectable seminary of learning in Putnam county, in the State of Georgia. Upon his return to the North, has he shown a grateful heart for the favor bestowed upon him? On the contrary, the viper raises his head to strike the bosom of the section which gave it shelter. Some there may be who revile the South because they honestly, in their ignorance, believe slavery to be a great evil. But this man knows the contrary. He has lived at the South, and again a few years ago he paid a visit to this section, where he had an opportunity of seeing slavery as it is, and slavery entirely different from what he falsely and maliciously represents it to be. With the lie in his mouth, and the poison of asps under his tongue, he makes haste to do evil, and his feet are swift to shed blood.

But we have digressed. Let us return to Fourierism and "higher law." And first of the latter.—It is a principle of the Jesuits, we believe, or at least it has been so charged, that a man may make a declaration, and even take an oath, at the same time making a "mental reservation" by which what he promises or swears to may be avoided, and he be guilty of no falsehood and perjury. Place a Jesuit upon the stand, and swear him to tell "the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth," and he will very willingly take the oath. Yet he will, at the same time, except, *in his own mind*, the relation of facts which he does not wish to disclose; and sure enough, when questioned in reference to these facts, he will either profess ignorance in relation thereto, or state things which he knows to be false. Yet he has taught his conscience not to chide him for it, upon the principle that he stipulated with his conscience to lie when he

came to such things as he did not wish to make known. He has conformed with his uuderstanding of the obligation he has taken upon himself, and it matters not how others understood him. Of course, no one who is not utterly corrupt at heart, will contend for any such principle. No one who has any regard for truth, honor, honesty or good morals, will be guilty of such a gross, palpable, barefaced disregard of them all.

So far from its being correct for men to make mental reservations, and avoid their obligations and their oaths by placing such constructions upon them as their own interest or wishes may dictate, it would be criminal for a man to carry out the only proper construction of an obligation which he knew was misapprehended by others to mean something not contained in its legitimate interpretation. To illustrate: if A enters into a written agreement with B, C, D, E and F, and A, through superior or technical knowledge, sees that the instrument stipulates something for which B and the others did not bargain, he is bound in good morals not to place the legal and literal construction upon it, but so to construe it as to make it mean what he knew his fellows to understand it to mean. And why is this so? For the obv ious reason that B and the others made only such an agreement as was indicated by their understanding of the instrument. They think that A understands it just as they do. On the other hand, A, knowing that his fellows do not understand the agreement as he does, would be acting criminally to put such a construction, though a legitimate one, upon the instrument, as would defeat what all the balance considered the bargain.

The philosophy of the thing is this: words are but signs of ideas, and by consent, one word may be as well employed to represent an idea as another. And if B and the others, through choice or ignorance, make a set of words represent a written agreement which actually means something else, the true agreement is that which exists in the intention, and not that which is actually created by the words.

When a person takes upon himself an oath or an obligation, in an enlightened and Christian country, that construction is the proper one which is placed upon it by those who are immediately concerned, or by those who have authority to tell what it means. A makes B a deed to some land, and by ignorantly using a technical expression, creates a greater estate in him than was intended. Now B, so far as he can regulate the matter, is bound to be governed by the intention of A, rather than by the exact technical meaning of the deed. In the State of Georgia, equity powers are vested in a Chancellor, and "special jury." The special jurors are sworn to render their verdicts "according to *equity*, and the opinion they entertain of the evidence." The Chancellor explains to the jury that the word *equity*, in their oath, does not mean their crude notions of *natural equity*, but that *legal equity*, which is bound by certain legal rules and precedents. Therefore the juror must be guided in his understanding of his oath by the Chancellor, who has authority to tell him what it means. A owes B an account, the amount of which B knows nothing about. He cannot recover this account of A, at law, because of the very ignorance of its

amount. In equity, however, he may compel A to answer what he justly owes him, and then there would be no reason, it would seem, why a "special jury" should not award him a decree for the amount acknowledged to be due him. But A shows that this account has been running four years, and is therefore barred by the statute of limitations. Yet what effect should this have upon the *equitable* claim of B? Would not the jury, under their oath to be guided by *equity*, be compelled to render a verdict for the amount claimed by B, and even allowed to be due by A? Clearly not. Because the Chancellor has authority to explain to the jury the meaning of the oath they have taken. He explains to them that they are to be governed in their *equity* by certain fixed *legal* rules, and one of these legal rules is, that an account of four years' standing is not recoverable, either in law or in equity, because it is barred by the statute of limitations.

It follows from this, that when a senator takes his oath to support the Constitution of the United States, he is to be guided by the interpretation placed upon this instrument by proper authority, and the parties who formed it—not by the dictates of "higher law." Otherwise we should have as many constitutions as there are senators and representatives in Congress.

Now, the principle, on which the claims of *higher law* rest, is this: When a man takes his oath to support the Constitution of the United States, he excepts, in his own mind, the carrying out of those clauses which relate to slavery. He makes a "mental reservation," in taking his oath, that he will not support that part of the Constitution which runs counter to "higher law." This is the way in which he appeases his conscience. And although he may persuade himself that he is guiltless, still, in the eye of God and honest men, he is guilty of a perjury, whose blackness is enough to damn a universe.

We have alluded, in a foregoing portion of this article, to the conduct of Ohio, in excluding the emancipated negroes of John Randolph from her boundaries. Since that paragraph was penned, we see that Indiana, by a provision in her new Constitution, has virtually said that a negro shall not stay within the state. In Pennsylvania, they are making a move towards the same object. In the land of abolition, where they have so much sympathy for the negro slave, they seem to have none for the free negro, and none at all for the white slave. The following paragraph, which is going the rounds of the newspapers, shows how they do things in the land of abolition and Woman's Rights Associations. It is headed "Free Labor on Free Soil:"

"At a late meeting of the shirt-makers of New-York, one of them stated that she had been making for the California trade, shirts for two firms in Maiden Lane and William-street, (which she named,) at 6d. and 9d. a piece, per dozen. They were to be well-stitched in every way, and all that she could make was two dozen weekly, and to work day and night. She further stated, that she had not eaten any kind of meat in three weeks but once, when she was asked to dine by a friend, of whom she got a good dinner."

Comment is unnecessary. Not long ago we noticed in the Satur-

day Evening Post a warning to girls against the fascinating practice of large shirt-making establishments in some of the northern cities. The proprietors would advertise for five hundred girls to make shirts. Well, the five hundred girls would apply for work, and the owners of the establishment would require a deposit of one dollar from each female, as a guarantee for the safe return of the linen they took to make the shirts, and also as a guarantee that the work should be done well. The dollars were deposited, the linen taken away, and faithfully made into better garments, and returned to the proprietors of the establishment. These would receive them, but declare that the linen was ruined, turn the poor girls off, retain the money, and thus get their shirts made for nothing, and make five hundred dollars in the bargain. They next advertised for five hundred more girls, who would likewise be compelled to bend their emaciated frames over their work, by the dim rays of the midnight lamp, hoping to gain a small pittance of food, be absolutely robbed of their only dollar, probably borrowed, and then be turned off on the ground that they had ruined the linen. And such is the philanthropy of the land of abolition!

Not long ago, in the city of Boston, we believe, there was a "highly-respectable" young lady, one of the elite of the city, who absconded from her father's house, to become the bride of a negro scoundrel, who enticed her off. Then there was a clergyman found base enough to unite the two in wedlock. It is stated, we believe, that he expostulated with the young lady for some time; but, finding her inexorable, proceeded to tie the knot. The parents were abolitionists, and had taught their daughter that a colored skin made no difference. To prove the sincerity of their professions, they sought out their daughter, tore her away from the bosom of her Quashee, and placed her in a lunatic asylum. Such are some of the fruits of abolitionism.

We have not time or space to notice any more of the northern *isms*, which go to make up "*civilization*." We have said enough, for the present, in regard to them. Let us add, that at the South we have none of these, and thank God for it. We are confident we owe our exemption from them to negro slavery.

ART. IV.—MEMPHIS, AND ITS MANUFACTURING ADVANTAGES.

The attention of the South-west seems to be now strongly attracted to the establishment of manufactories for the raw material of its own growth. Instead of being surprised at this, it is matter of special wonder, that our political economists have not long since placed the subject in a proper light before the public mind. No people can be truly independent, or permanently prosperous, who do not produce for themselves all that is necessary for their subsistence. So far as this is furnished by agriculture, an agricultural people are independent. But as agriculture alone will not provide all that is necessary

for sustenance or comfort, commerce and manufactures must be resorted to, that the deficiency may be supplied. Where, from the accidents of climate, soil, or other causes, certain necessaries cannot be produced, or prepared for use by manufacturing, commerce interposes to supply what is wanting. So far the people of that region must be dependent upon those of a more favored clime, and their dependence is involuntary and inevitable. But where the earth yields every necessary product, and every facility is at hand for preparing these products for use, if the people rely on commerce for supplies, they fix upon themselves, by their own choice, the shackles of voluntary dependence upon regions more industrious, shrewd or enterprising.

Commerce is not to be undervalued. As no one country upon the earth does produce all that custom has made necessary for civilized life, an interchange of commodities is indispensable. It has a tendency to bind the inhabitants of the globe together by the adamantine bonds of mutual necessity, and, limited to its legitimate sphere, becomes a blessing of the highest order. But, if we trust to it for all, instead of looking to it only as auxiliary, we commit an error, fatal in its consequences. Hitherto the South-west engaged chiefly in agricultural pursuits; and through the channel of commerce, supplying their wants by the exchange of the raw material for the manufactured article, has seemed to be wholly unaware of the suicidal policy which they have adopted. They have sent to a market abroad their cotton, their tobacco, their hemp, and even their lumber, to be returned to them manufactured into forms suited to their wants. Can any one have ever doubted, but that this was all wrong, who reflected on the subject for a moment? Why should we give to our neighbor two pounds of cotton for one in a manufactured form, where we can as easily preserve the whole, by manufacturing it ourselves? That we can do so, is certain.

To England and the northern states we have been, and yet are, tributary for our cotton fabrics. Is it because there is any insurmountable impediment in the way of our producing these fabrics by our own labor? Certainly it is not. The material for the formation of every sort of machinery is abundant at our doors. The skill to mould this material into necessary form is amongst us. The substance to be operated on is the product of our farms, and at present the staple of our commerce. The all-pervading power of steam offers its incalculable force, to supply the defect of the impetus derived from water. By its superior economy, it supersedes even the motive power of water. What, then, but total blindness to our own interest, prevents us from at once embarking in the great enterprise of asserting our independence, *de facto*, by the establishment of manufactories? To the infant cities of the South-west, it is a matter of vital importance. Some of them have become conscious of the truth, and are, through the medium of manufactures, pressing with great strides to vast wealth and permanent prosperity. Others are lagging in the race, and soon will be falling "into the sere and yellow leaf," unless they arouse from their torpor.

We are happy to see indications of a proper spirit manifesting themselves in Memphis.

To say nothing of two large merchant flouring mills now in "the full tide of successful experiment," with another still more extensive, rapidly advancing to completion—a ship-yard for the building of steam-boats—two extensive machine-shops and foundries—besides various other manufactories of minor importance—we have now the gratification of seeing a mill for the manufacture of cotton erected in our suburbs, and speedily to commence operations.

The building of the Memphis Manufacturing Company is 125 feet long by 50 feet in width—three stories high, besides the attic. The lower floor contains the cards and their appendages; the second story the looms, with their machinery; the third story contains the spindles, &c.; while the warpers, &c., occupy the attic.

One wing from the centre, running back 80 feet, two stories high, is occupied on the lower story by the engines and machine-shop, and on the upper by the machinery for the woollen manufacture.

Another wing at the east end, parallel with the former, 60 feet long by 40 in width, two stories high, contains in the first story the willower, picker, &c.—the second story at this time unoccupied.

The entire building, including the wings, is built in the most substantial manner of brick, and covered with slate.

There is in front a vestibule or tower 12 by 20 feet, in which the staircase runs up to each story, the upper part of which is to contain the bell.

The stack is built with air flues, to prevent it from cracking from the heat, and is sixty-five feet high.

There are two engines, with 12 inch cylinders and 4 feet stroke, which were built by Lent, South & Shipman, of New-Albany, Indiana, with three boilers 28 feet long and 36 inches in diameter, with double flues.

The machinery contracted for, which is now all in the mill ready to commence operations, does not occupy one-half the space in the present building. There are now in the mill 2,160 spindles for cotton, and 24 cotton looms, with all the cards and other appurtenances necessary to their complete operation. The machinery is of the best class, and embraces *all* the latest improvements of the day. It was built by Messrs. Jenks, Painter & Co., of Alleghany City, Pa. Mr. Jenks is a man of the highest reputation as a machinist, having constructed and put in operation some of the best cotton mills in the country, under the supervision of Gen. James, of Providence, R. I., and he has fully sustained his high reputation in this contract.

There is also on hand a full set of machinery for manufacturing woollen goods, with 210 spindles, for the spinning of woollen filling for making jeans and linseys suitable for negro clothing.

The entire cost of the above machinery ready for operation, including thirty acres of ground, (on Wolf River, above the U. S. Navy-Yard,) and all the buildings, together with the dwelling-houses necessary for the accommodation of the operatives, will reach nearly sixty thousand dollars.

The mill, when filled with machinery, which is intended to be done at an early day, will contain 5,760 spindles, and 112 looms, with all the appurtenances necessary to their complete operation, which will require an additional capital of about the same amount.

The product of the mill at present is intended to be heavy osnaburgs, jeans and linseys, as also yarns, from No. 4 to No. 10.

This is but a hasty, and somewhat imperfect sketch, of the pioneers in the manufacture of cotton at Memphis. That it must succeed itself, and give impulse to many establishments of similar character, cannot be deemed problematical.

A new era is indeed opening upon the prosperity of Memphis, the beginning of a system, which, if energetically prosecuted, will make her the Queen City of the Mississippi River, as Cincinnati is of the Ohio.

Memphis possesses all the advantages of the South and West combined, for the manufacture of cotton, especially of the coarser quality of goods. It also has advantages, which no other point, in either the South or the West, can pretend to claim. There is more cotton sold at this point, by the planter who produces it, before it passes into the hands of the commission merchant, with his items of storage, drayage, insurance, and commissions, than at any other point in the United States. Of the whole amount of cotton shipped from this place annually, being but little short of 150,000 bales, not 5,000 are shipped on account of the planter.

And, although Memphis is not considered as being in the centre of the cotton-growing region, yet the Memphis cottons, in point of quality, are inferior to none in the United States, as evidenced by the fact, that they have always taken the premiums, wherever they have been placed in competition with any other of the short staple cottons. And I doubt not that their character will be fully sustained at the exhibition of the World's Fair, which is shortly to take place at London—where, I learn, that her interests are to be represented, and where she will come in competition with the cotton-growing region of the whole world.

Consequently, there is no other point at which so favorable an opportunity is afforded of always having a market, from which to purchase a regular supply for consumption, from the hands of the producer: thereby avoiding the necessity of employing a large surplus capital, in a stock of the raw material in advance of its being required for use, not only saving the loss of interest upon that amount of capital, but also avoiding the loss in the weight of the raw material, which is no mean item, as every one can testify who has had much experience in handling that article.

Memphis is situated below the mouths of all the rivers which drain the grain-growing states of the West, and being the first market at which they concentrate, the means of living must be, consequently, as cheap, or cheaper, than elsewhere. At all events, abundant supplies are thus insured to an indefinite extent, without trouble, risk or delay, to the consumer.

The best coal on the Ohio River can be delivered at this place for

two dollars and forty cents per ton, that being less than half the price paid for an article in the East, of quality inferior for driving machinery. The Naumkeag Mill, at Salem, pays five dollars per ton, and consumes about 1,860 tons per annum.

The peculiar character of our domestic institutions in the South is such, as almost entirely to drive out of employment a large class of worthy laborers, who would otherwise be called into requisition to fill up the stations of domestic servitude, necessary to be filled in every community. And the idea that some odium might attach to their character for self-respect, by being thrown into juxtaposition with the slave, prevents them from entering into competition for that class of service, entirely.

And as there is no other field for profitable employment for that class of laborers, who are well-suited for operatives in a cotton factory, hence their services can be procured at lower rates in the slave-holding states of the South, than in the free states of the North.

These are a few of the advantages possessed by Memphis. We might prosecute the subject still farther with equal force of reasoning. We might dilate upon our climate, which guards us, alike from the icy chains of winter, and the torrid heat of a more southern summer; which leaves our streams at all times open to navigation, for the exportation of our products or the reception of supplies; which whitens our hills and valleys with the product of the plant, without which civilized man could scarcely now find clothing; which, in point of salubrity, yields to few other regions of our continent; the centre of a country, rich in almost every useful vegetable and mineral production. The youthful giant, who reaches with one hand the lakes of the North, and with the other the ocean, bays and gulfs of the sunny South, unites them in a fraternal embrace, and invites them to pour their treasures at his feet. All this, and more, far more, we might say, with justice, but for the present we forbear. We cannot but hope, that more experienced heads and practised pens, will prosecute the theme. We earnestly invoke their aid, that our city may be exhibited as she is, and as she must become, unless destroyed by the short-sighted policy of her own sons.

ART. V.—LOUISIANA—HER PUBLIC LANDS AND LEVEES.

The splendid domain of Lower Louisiana, which, like Holland, has been reclaimed from the waste of waters, is justly considered among the brightest jewels of the republic, and furnishes to the world an evidence of what the indomitable enterprise and energy of our people may achieve, even under that sultry sun of the South, which has been so much slandered.

The cost of the levees which have been constructed in Louisiana cannot be less than from 12 to 15,000,000 dollars, and yet withal they have not afforded protection to the immense interests at stake.

The public mind has been aroused to the subject, and for nearly three years, investigations have been conducted of the most rigid and comprehensive character, tending to elucidate the great problem of our future safety.

In all the regions of doubt and conjecture, it is not difficult to arrive at one fact which every one will admit, and that is, the work of protection is too vast to be accomplished entirely through the unaided resources of a single state, however wealthy and powerful she may be.

In view of this fact, Congress, at a late session, donated to the state a large area of inundated lands, to be appropriated for purposes of improvement, and the effort is now being made in that body to extend the grant so as to include *the whole* of such or similar lands within our limits. The proposition is certainly but a fair one, and if acceded to, will in no respect exceed the exigencies of the case.

By the letter of Mr. Butterfield to the Secretary of the Interior, we learn that 1,719,188 acres of land in Louisiana subject to overflow, have been sold by the United States, and that of the lands—which will remain the property of the government after the swamp and overflowed lands, granted by the act above referred to, to the state—it is estimated :—

4,700,000	acres	have been	in market	10	years,
949,413	"	"	"	20	"
2,000,000	"	"	"	30	"

exclusive of the lands in the Greensburg District—their surveys having been reported fraudulent.

The Commissioner says of these lands remaining to the government, and which are colored on his map before us *yellow:* "they are poor, scarcely averaging second and third quality—their timber chiefly pine," &c.

Mr. John Wilson having been dispatched from the Land Office last season, to examine minutely the public lands of Louisiana, made a report on his return, which embodies so much that is interesting and useful, not only to our own citizens but strangers seeking investment here, that we can do no more acceptable service than to extract at large from his pages :

"On the east side of the Mississippi the lands in the interior appear to be generally high and rolling from the northern boundary of the state to Baton Rouge, where the hills give place to a low, alluvial formation. The river, in its serpentine course, occasionally approaches those high lands, and again receding, all the margin of the stream between the points where it comes in contact with the table-land is low and wet. On the right bank of the river throughout the state, for some distance in the interior, it is mostly of that character, and, falling back from the margin of the stream, generally terminates in lakes or swamps.

The average fall from the natural surface of the ground, at the bank of the river, to a distance of forty arpens back from the

margin of the stream, has been found by a series of observations, I was informed, to be from fourteen to sixteen feet; and where there is no swamp in the rear, to be twelve feet. Hence, when there is a rise in the river, (which frequently happens,) the water is precipitated with great force and velocity upon the rear lands. To protect those lands, and to prevent injury to the front, necessarily accruing from such overflows, levees or embankments are thrown up along the bank of the river, of greater or less base and elevation, according to the necessities of the case. Where creeks or bayous enter into the Mississippi, their banks must also be leveed or their mouths closed, otherwise the high waters of the Mississippi flow into them and inundate the rear lands.

These levees, on the average, appear to be about five feet high, thirty feet wide at the base, and seven and a-half feet wide at top; hence, the constructing and keeping of them in repair are very expensive. Moreover, the current of the river being very rapid and the banks alluvial, those banks are subject to great and rapid abrasions; and, as a matter of prudence and safety, therefore, the levees are, and must be, constructed some distance back from the margin of the stream. Between the levees and the enclosures of the planters, space is always left for a public road, that being the highest and dryest ground, and therefore best adapted for that purpose, the rear lands being so wet that they are frequently impassable. The proprietors of the lands fronting on the rivers, creeks, bayous, &c., are thus deprived of the use of a considerable portion of their very best lands, by the necessity for making these levees and the peculiar topographical features of the country.

From the foregoing description, it is evident that all the lands fronting on rivers, creeks, bayous, and water-courses subject to overflow, must be protected by safe, strong, and sufficient levees, and that the omission to secure a single tract will bring ruin and desolation on all the adjacent country; and, therefore, all of such lands remaining the property of the government must, of necessity, be leveed at the expense and cost of the citizens of Louisiana. All the rear lands that are of any value have been reclaimed by the construction and perpetuation of those levees; and thus, so far as any of those lands have been sold by the government, (and it is believed that hundreds of thousands of acres of such lands have been sold,) the government has been so far benefited at the expense of the people of Louisiana, for none of those lands would have been disposed of had they not thus been reclaimed.

It is impossible by any written description to convey an adequate idea of the present condition of a great part of Louisiana; to be realized, it must be witnessed. For hundreds of miles I found the whole bank of the stream under water; and in other places the river, having broken through the embankments or levees, was rushing over the country with the force of a torrent, carrying ruin and destruction in its course. Where the levees were sufficiently high and strong to resist the pressure of the water, the rear lands were inundated by the river flowing through the crevasses or creeks, &c., until the

whole, except a few hundred feet of the front land next the levees, was overflowed. A great number of plantations and settlements were entirely submerged, and the only mode of access or egress left to the inhabitants was by boats, or platforms erected where practicable, on frames, above the surrounding waters. This state of things was not limited to the country; some of the villages or towns along the river were in a like condition—the streets being wholly under water. The inhabitants were thus deprived of every opportunity of engaging in any industrial pursuit, and, consequently, of the means of earning subsistence, as the land could not be cultivated; and in many cases there was not sufficient dry ground on which to cut wood for fuel for the steamboats that navigate the river. The cattle had taken refuge on the most elevated spots, and were seeking a scanty subsistence from the leaves of bushes or the tops of the young cane, and frequently, getting into deep water, were carried away by the force of the current and drowned.

The scene for many miles thus presented was harrowing in the extreme, and appeals to every principle of humanity for all the succor and relief that can be extended in the premises. Neither was it temporary in its character, for I was assured by many that it was nearly as bad last year and the year before, and that there had been but little, if any, abatement of the evil, since the early part of last January.

It is estimated that property to the amount of millions of dollars has been destroyed; and, although the city of New-Orleans and a considerable portion of the southern section of the state have been preserved by the drainage of the surplus water through the crevasses and over the country above, those portions of the state can have no guarantee of any immunity from a like infliction till a radical remedy be applied.

By an examination of the able report on the internal improvements of Louisiana, made by A. D. Wooldridge, Esq., State Engineer, in January last, a copy of which is respectfully submitted herewith, from my own observation, and from information derived from many intelligent gentlemen living in, or who had recently visited various sections of the state, the impression was made on my mind that all the lands belonging to the government, and most of those the property of individuals, within the following limits, had been submerged during the whole of the present, and a great part of the past year, and that preceding; that is to say, *between the Mississippi and Ouachita Rivers, extending to the high lands on the west side of the Ouachita; those within some miles on each side of the Upper Red River; those along the Lower Red River; the lands in the South-eastern District, and those along the Gulf coast, as shown by the accompanying diagram of the state.* The northern boundary of those last mentioned to be determined by actual observation. The lands between East and West Pearl Rivers were also designated as of like character. Subsequently, in an interview with the Surveyor General and several of the deputies, I was satisfied that this impression was correct.

Having thus briefly described the peculiar character of the country, and the action had in relation to the grant made by the act of the 3d of March, 1849, to aid the state of Louisiana in draining the swamp lands therein, I beg leave to present a few suggestions as to the evil under which that state now suffers, the remedy for that evil, and the benefits which will flow from the adoption of that remedy.

By tracing the dividing ridges between the sources of the waters that flow into the Mississippi and its tributaries, and those which flow north into the lakes, east to the ocean, south to the Gulf of Mexico, extending west to the Rocky Mountains, it will be found that the boundaries thus described extend from the twenty-ninth to the forty-ninth degree of north latitude, and average from the tenth to the twenty-seventh degree of longitude west from Washington, embracing an area of about one million two hundred and sixty-nine thousand square miles.

This region has been settled with unexampled rapidity; and as improvements keep pace with the settlements, it is reasonable to suppose that the whole country is now more rapidly and thoroughly drained into the Mississippi than when in a state of nature. Then, no doubt, a great quantity of water was collected in pools and swamps, and there remained until carried off by gradual evaporation. This, of course, so far relieved the bed of the stream; but as the lands are opened up by cultivation, this water is discharged at once into the river, thus adding to its volume.

This, it is believed, is one of the causes of the great increase in the waters of the Mississippi for the few years past; but whether it is the principal cause or not I cannot say, as I have not the data to enable me to come to a satisfactory conclusion in the matter.

All the water collected in the immense region above mentioned, except that carried off by evaporation, has no outlet but the Mississippi, and the regions in the south inundated by it. The facts presented to the eye are sufficient to show that the river, with a bed averaging not more than a mile in width through the lower part of the state, and towards its outlet, is not sufficient to carry off the surplus water thus accumulated. No labored calculation of the amount of water collected, and of the capacity of the river, is required to prove this truth—it is established in heart-rending evidences of the sufferings of our fellow-citizens in that region. The questions, then, arise, in what way and by what means shall the evil be abated? The old system of leveeing has been found, by many years of patient trial, to be insufficient, and in adopting a new plan, permanent security should be the great desideratum.

In considering this subject, it must be remembered that the state of Louisiana is not the only sufferer from this undue accumulation of water in the Mississippi. Portions of Arkansas, Missouri and Mississippi are in like condition, and any means adopted with reference to Louisiana alone must, to a considerable extent, prove abortive, so long as the overflow from the Mississippi finds its way through the states above to the low lands of that state.

The first suggestion in relation to this matter is to make such im-

provements in the bed of the river as will enable it to discharge the greatest amount of water in the least time. This can be done, after a careful survey of the stream, by straightening its channel, commencing at the Gulf of Mexico, and working upwards as far as necessary. This would abridge considerably the length of the stream, increase its velocity somewhat, cause it to deepen its channel, keep it clearer of obstructions than it now is, and have a tendency to prevent the abrasions of its banks. Those abrasions are now chiefly found in the bends, where the waters, rushing with great force against the alluvial shores, continually wash them away, and increase the evil from year to year.

The plan heretofore adopted to some extent, of straightening the channel of the river at certain points high up the stream, has become deservedly unpopular, for the reason that this partial effort only removes the evil from one point to throw it with aggravated force and effect upon another. But I am convinced that a system of this kind, adopted and followed out as suggested, would tend very much to the accomplishment of the desired object, and that, too, without so materially increasing the current of the river as to interfere injuriously with its navigation.

The next suggestion is, by the construction of levees at some distance inland from the margin of the river, of such breadth of base and top that they can be used for roads—the elevation to depend upon the necessities of the case. By using these levees as roads, they will be kept constantly hard and compact, and any injury to them will at once be noticed and repaired.

The present levees, to a great extent, are found to be insufficient, and hence, in constructing new ones, the best plan should be adopted, and that plan should be uniform.

The third suggestion, and that which would obviate the necessity of elevating those levees above a very moderate height, is, to open the natural outlets on the sides of the river which have been closed by artificial means, and which, before being so closed, acted as safety-valves to carry off the mass of water that now inundates the country; or by opening new outlets in the shape of canals at points where formations can be found of such character that the banks will not be subject to wash or abrasion.

These canals should be cut to the swamp, and, if necessary, their sides could be leveed, to prevent the water drained by them from spreading abroad over the country. Trenches or canals should also be cut through the lowest parts of the swamps between the streams, and these should be connected with each other, and with the bayous and sloughs that traverse the country. As many branches or outlets as may be necessary to carry off the surplus water of the river could thus be made into the Gulf, and the overflow of the river be controlled and directed, so that large bodies of land, now swampy or overflowed even at dry seasons, would be reclaimed; and an invaluable system of internal communication by canals effected, sufficient to convey the produce of every plantation to market.

It is true that these improvements will be expensive. The amount

of the cost I have not attempted to calculate; nor can it be done with any degree of accuracy until the necessary surveys have been made. It has been supposed that it may amount to six or ten millions of dollars. Admitting that it will cost the greater sum, or even double that amount, the expense would be of no consideration in comparison to the benefits that would flow from it.

The destruction of property and crops this season by the overflow has been estimated to amount to five or seven millions of dollars, a recurrence of which can hereafter be prevented by these improvements. Moreover, about three or four millions of acres of land will be reclaimed, which otherwise would continue to be valueless. These lands are as fruitful as any in the world, and by proper cultivation would yield abundant crops of sugar and cotton—the great staples of the South. This increase of these articles, according to the laws of trade, would reduce the price of them; and thus all the citizens of the United States would be so far benefited.

The expense of making these improvements, as already stated, will be very heavy; much more in fact than can be realized from the munificent grant made by Congress to aid in this object, however liberally that grant may be construed. The balance must be raised by taxing the inhabitants, who have already contributed millions for this purpose, and whose means have been seriously impaired by the disasters of the past and present year; unless Congress, regarding the matter in its true light as one of national importance, should further extend the grant for this purpose, so as to include all the public lands in the state, which, in view of all the circumstances of the case, I respectfully recommend.

The whole question, it seems to me, has resolved itself into the alternative, that relief must be speedily extended, or the low lands of Louisiana abandoned. The latter alternative would be ruinous to thousands who have spent fortunes in purchasing and improving those lands; and, by reducing the amount of the annual crop of sugar and cotton in our country, would increase the price of those articles, compel us to depend for the deficiency thus caused on foreign countries, and prove seriously inconvenient to a great number of our citizens.

The state of Louisiana has within itself the means of exhaustless wealth. With a soil of unbounded and inexhaustible fertility, it has one of the most delightful and salubrious climates in the world, despite the consequences of these overflows, which would have converted most other countries into vast burial places.

The fervid heat of summer enables its citizens to enjoy all the luxuries and delights of the tropics; and yet that heat is so moderated by the prevalence of cool and refreshing breezes, that a delightful residence can be found in almost any part of the state. With the improvements now required, Louisiana will soon become one of the first states of the Union in wealth, population, and importance, as she has within herself all the elements necessary to this end."

ART. VI.—VIRGINIA.*

EARLY HISTORY—EDUCATION—SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES—GOVERNMENT—LAWS—RESOURCES—INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS—SLAVERY, ETC.

It is well known that the state which bears the name of Virginia, was so called in honor of Elizabeth, the virgin Queen of England, under whose auspices an expedition was set on foot by Sir Walter Raleigh and other adventurous spirits, in search of gold. Whether the *sacra fames auri*, or the spirit-stirring influences of religious fanaticism, has been most conducive to great enterprises, is a subject on which much speculation might be indulged. For our own part, we are inclined to the opinion that, as long as man is the same commodity-loving animal that we have always found him, there is no hope that he will place virtue *before* money in the catalogue of his aspirations. But we digress. Raleigh claimed, in the name of his sovereign, all that tract of land extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean, a considerable portion of which is now divided into flourishing states in the North-western portion of the Union. It is not our purpose to enter into a discussion of the history of the "Old Dominion,"† previous to the convention which determined the boundaries of the states; nor will we discuss her title to all that she claimed. We think that her present boundaries are amply sufficient. She is the largest state in the Union, and has contributed her full quota of great men in illustrating the glory of the Republic in arms and eloquence. The fame of Washington and Henry have reached the farthest limits of the civilized world, and are safe for immortality. Seven out of fourteen presidents, have been natives of her soil, and her whole political career has been a practical illustration of her motto—"*Eternal Hatred to Tyranny.*"

Her northern boundary extends to the Ohio River and Pennsylvania—her eastern to the Potomac and the Chesapeake Bay—her southern to North Carolina and Tennessee; and her western boundary to the Ohio River and Kentucky. The surface of the state presents several parallel chains of mountains, commencing about 180 miles from the sea, and running in a south-west direction. The Al-

* 1. A History of Virginia, from its discovery and settlement by Europeans, to the present time. By Robert R. Howison. Two volumes. New-York & London: Wiley & Putnam, 1848.

2. Historical Collections of Virginia, by Howe, 1847, &c., &c.

† If it be not beneath the dignity of history, it may be interesting to our readers to state how Virginia came to acquire the soubriquet of the "Old Dominion." After the death of Charles I., and the usurpation of Cromwell, the British colonies in America were required to swear allegiance to the Protector. But Virginia persisted in retaining her loyalty to the *Old Dominion*—that is, to the dynasty of the Stuarts, which was represented in the person of Charles II, who had taken refuge in Holland. After the death of Cromwell, Charles was recalled, and proclaimed King of England, Scotland, Ireland and *Virginia*, and ordered her arms to be quartered with those of Great Britain as an independent member of the Empire. This was done in compliment to Virginia, who had invited him to reign over her, but the death of Cromwell restored him to the throne of his ancestors. We think that Virginia was fortunate; for surely a more worthless tyrant never held the reins of empire.

leghanies have their widest base in this state, occupying the central region from 80 to 100 miles in breadth. Between these ridges are valleys of the greatest fertility. The eastern section is generally level—the soil sandy and not very productive, except along the rivers, which is exceedingly fertile. Above the falls of the river, the land is better, and admits of profitable cultivation. The section west of the Alleghanies is mountainous and broken, interspersed with rich valleys, and limestone country. In the low alluvial parts, it is hot and unhealthy. The summers are long and oppressive, and the winters mild and agreeable. In the mountainous districts, the weather is considerably colder, and the air more salubrious. Virginia is 370 miles long and 200 broad, at its greatest width, containing 64,000 square miles, or 40,960,000 acres. She numbers at present no less than ten regular colleges and universities, and there is great room for improvement in every department of education. It may not be uninteresting to give a brief sketch of some of these colleges.

William and Mary College is, with the exception of Harvard University, the oldest literary institution in the country. It is distinguished for its large proportion of graduates who have arisen to eminence, some of whom have held the highest stations in the nation. It was founded in 1692, in the reign of William and Mary, who granted it a donation of 20,000 acres of land. In 1793, the Assembly ordered that it should be built at Williamsburg. "The college received a penny a pound on certain tobaccos exported from Virginia and Maryland, which had been levied by the statute of the 25th of Charles II. The Assembly also gave it, by temporary laws, a duty on liquors imported, and skins and furs exported. From these resources, it received upwards of £3,000. The buildings are of brick, and sufficiently large for the accommodation of 100 students. By its charter, dated the 8th of February, 1692, it was placed under the direction of not less than twenty visitors, and to have a president and six professors, who were incorporated. It was formerly allowed a representative in the General Assembly under this charter—a professorship of the Greek and Latin languages—a professorship of mathematics and one of moral philosophy, and two of divinity, were established. To these were annexed a considerable donation by the Hon. Robert Boyle of England, a sixth professorship for the instruction of the Indians, and their conversion to Christianity." Its first President was the Rev. James Blair, D.D.; Thomas R. Dew, whose able essay on the Institution of Slavery entitles him to the lasting gratitude of the whole South, has also presided in the chair. *Thomas Jefferson* was a graduate of this college. There were in 1840, 98 students in the collegiate department, and 32 in the law school.

Hampden Sidney College, the next in order, was established in the year 1774, and named after those martyrs who perished in the good old cause—John Hampden and Algernon Sidney. It was chartered in 1783, and has ever been supported by the private munificence of public-spirited individuals. It has an elevated, healthy and pleasant situation, one mile from the Court-house, and 80 from Richmond. Although the institution has had to encounter many difficulties on ac-

count of funds, yet it has generally been in successful operation, and has educated upwards of 2,000 young men, many of whom have been of eminent usefulness, and some of great abilities. More instructors have emanated from this institution than any other in the southern country. Connected with the college are a literary and philosophical society, and an institute of education. There are also several societies among the students, which are of great assistance to them in the prosecution of their studies. The legislative government of the college is vested in 27 trustees, who fill up vacancies in their own body. By the census of 1840, it contained 65 students, and 8,000 volumes in its library." The first president was the Rev. S. S. Smith, and the last Lewis S. Green, D.D., a gentleman of distinguished literary attainments.

The *Union Theological Seminary* is located in the immediate vicinity of Hampden Sidney College. "The institution had its origin in efforts made by the Presbytery of Hanover and the Synod of Virginia, as early as 1812, to give their candidates for the ministry a more complete theological education. It did not, however, go into operation in a regular form, until the year 1824. In 1842, it had three professors, twenty students, one hundred and seventy-five graduates, and a carefully selected library of about 4,000 volumes."

The *University of Virginia* is about one mile from Charlottesville. It was erected and endowed by the state in 1825, and owes its origin and peculiar organization to Mr. Jefferson. "It has a fine collection of buildings, consisting of four parallel ranges about six hundred feet in length, and two hundred feet apart, suited to the accommodation of nine professorships and upwards of two hundred students, which, together with the real estate, cost over $300,000. It possesses valuable libraries, amounting to 16,000 volumes, and is amply provided with philosophical and chemical apparatus, together with a fine cabinet of minerals and fossils, and an anatomical and miscellaneous museum. The Observatory, a short distance from the University, is furnished with the requisite astronomical instruments. The plan of the University differs materially from that of any other institution in the Union. The students are not divided into four classes, with a course of studies embracing four years; but the different branches are styled *schools*, and the student is at liberty to attend which he pleases, and *graduate* in each when prepared. In order to attain the degree of "Master of Arts in the University of Virginia," the student must graduate in the several schools of mathematics, ancient languages, moral philosophy, natural philosophy, chemistry, and in some two of the modern languages. The chairman of the faculty is annually chosen from the faculty by the Board of Visitors. This board is appointed by the governor and council every four years, and chooses its own rector. This institution is, in every respect, organized and justly regarded as an University of the first class." The number of students for the year 1850 is two hundred and twelve. Gessner Harrison, Chairman of the Faculty.

Washington College, at Lexington, was founded in 1812. Its present number of students is about eighty. It contains a library of 5,000 volumes. *Randolph Macon* College was founded at Boydton,

in 1832. Students about 145. Its library contains about 6,000 volumes. *Emory and Henry* College is ten miles from Abingdon, in a beautiful and secluded situation. It was founded in 1838, under the patronage of the Holston Annual Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church. "It is yet in its infancy, but is efficiently organized, and is already exerting a salutary influence upon the cause of education in South-western Virginia. The faculty consists of a President, L. C. Garland, A. M., who is the professor of moral and mental science, two other professors, and a tutor; number of pupils about 125, including those in the preparatory department. The name Emory and Henry was given in honor of Patrick Henry and the Rev. Bishop Emory, of the M. E. Church." *Rector College*, at Prunty Town, was founded in 1839. Its present number of students is about 55. President, Charles Wheeler, A. M. *Bethany College* was founded by Dr. Alexander Campbell, in 1841. Its instructors are the president, (Dr. Campbell,) and four professors. It is in a flourishing condition, numbering about 100 students. The buildings prepared for their reception are spacious and convenient. There are theological schools at Richmond, in Prince Edward County, and in Fairfax County. There is also a Military Institute at Lexington, established in 1839, of which Col. F. H. Smith is superintendent. It numbers at present about 120 cadets. A *Lunatic Asylum* and an *Institution for the Deaf, Dumb and Blind*, have been recently established at Staunton. The latter place contains two female seminaries, two male academies, one Presbyterian, one Episcopalian, one Lutheran, and one Methodist church, and about 2,200 inhabitants.

Schools.—There are in 122 counties and towns, 3,394; total number of poor children, 26,472. Amount expended for tuition of poor children, including books, compensation to officers, and all other expenses, $61,830 59. Average actual attendance of each poor child at common schools, 57¼ days, equal to nearly 11½ weeks. Average amount paid for tuition of each poor child, $2 33. Average cost per diem of tuition and expenses of each poor child, 4⅛ cents.

GOVERNMENT.

	Term ends.	Salary.
JOHN B. FLOYD, of Washington Co., *Governor*	January 1, 1852,	$3,333
Raleigh T. Daniel, of Richmond, *Coun. of State*	March 31, 1851,	1,000
John F. Wiley, of Amelia Co., " " "	" 31, 1852,	1,000
John M. Patton, of Richmond, " " "	March 31, 1853,	1,000
Robert Butler, of Isle of Wight Co., *Treasurer*		2,000
Robert Johnston, of Harrison Co., *Auditor of Public Accounts*		2,000
James Brown, Jr., of Richmond, *2d Auditor and Supt. Lit. Fund*		2,000
Stafford H. Parker, of Richmond, *Register of Land Office*		2,000
Sidney S. Baxter, " *Attorney General*, fees, etc.		1,000
W. H. Richardson, of Henrico Co., *Sec. of Commonwealth, Adjt. Gen'l and Librarian.*		1,720
Thomas S. Lawson, of Richmond, *Clerk of Council and Supt. of Weights and Measures,*		1,300
Charles S. Morgan, " *Supt. of Penitentiary*		2,000
Wm. H. Dennis, of Charlotte Co.,	*Speaker of Senate.*	
Henry L. Hopkins, of Powhatan,	" " *House.*	
George W. Mumford, of Richmond	*Clerk of House.*	
Joel Pennybacker, of Shenandoah Co	" " *Senate.*	

The Governor, Treasurer, Auditor, 2d Auditor and Register of the Land Office are, *ex officio*, members of the Board of Public Works, Literary Fund, North-western and South-western Turnpike roads, and Blue Ridge Rail-way Company. They do not receive extra compensation for this service.

JUDICIARY.

Court of Appeals.

		Elected.	Salary.
Wm. H. Cabell, of Richmond, *President*,		1830.	$5,750
Francis T. Brooks, of Spotsylvania Co., *Judge*		1830.	2,500
John J. Allen, of Botetourt Co.,	"	1840.	2,500
Briscoe G. Baldwin, of Staunton,	"	1842.	2,500
Wm. Daniel, of Lynchburg,	"	1846.	2,500
Joseph Allen, of Richmond, *Clerk of Eastern Circuit*			1,000
John A. North, of Lewisburg, *Clerk of Western Circuit*			1,000

The judges are entitled to receive, in addition to their salaries, 25 cents a mile for necessary travel. The Court of Appeals holds two sessions annually; one at Lewisburg, Greenbrier county, for the counties lying west of the Blue Ridge, commencing on the 2d Monday in July, and continuing ninety days, unless the business shall be sooner dispatched; the other at Richmond, for the counties lying east of the Blue Ridge, commencing at such times as the Court may, from time to time, appoint.

Superior Court.—The state is divided into ten judicial districts, and each district into two circuits, except the 4th, which has three. The 3d circuit of the 4th district is the 21st district of the state, containing but a single court, called the "Circuit Superior Court of Law and Chancery for the County of Henrico and City of Richmond." In this court there are two judges, one on the law side, the other on the chancery side, each with a salary of $2,000. On the disqualification of either of the two judges now attached to this court, his duties are to devolve on the other, without increase of salary. In the other circuits, each judge has chancery and law jurisdiction, with a salary of $1,500, and $4 for every 20 miles of necessary travel. A Circuit Superior Court of Law and Chancery is held twice every year, in each county, and in some corporations. The five senior judges, namely—Judges Smith, Field, Lomax, Thompson and Leigh, of the Old General (now Circuit) Court, constitute a special Court of Appeals, and also the General Court, which holds two terms every year, at the court-house, in Richmond. One term begins the last Monday in June, and the other the last Monday in December. The General Court has appellate jurisdiction in the last resort in criminal cases; also original jurisdiction of probates and administrations; and where the judges of the Court of Appeals proper are disqualified by interest or otherwise, some of them sit as a Special Court of Appeals.

County Courts.—A court sits in each county every month, held by four or more justices of the peace. These courts, held by plain farmers or country gentlemen, have a jurisdiction wider than that of any other court in the state. Any one justice can hold a court in cases under $20 in value. At the monthly or quarterly sessions, held by four or more justices, deeds and wills may be proved, and chancery

matters and suits at common law be heard, with a right of appeal to a Superior Court. These courts, exclusively, try slaves for all offences; and they examine free persons, charged with felony, previously to their trial in the Circuit Court. Free negroes and Indians are on the same footing with slaves.

JUDGES OF THE CIRCUIT COURTS.

Judges.	Residence.	Judges.	Residence.
1. Richard H. Baker,	of Nasemond Co.	13. Isaac R. Douglas	of Morgan Co.
2. John W. Nash	of Powhatan Co.	14. Daniel Smith,	of Rockingham Co.
3. George P. Scarburg	of Accomac.	15. Benj. Estill	of Wythe Co.
4. J. B. Christian,	of Charles Co.	16. James L. Brown	of Wythe Co.
5. John T. Lomax,	of Fredericksburg	17. Edward Johnston,	of Botetourt Co.
6. John W. Tyler,	of Pr. William's Co.	18. Matthew Dunbar	of Kanawha Co.
7. John B. Clopton	of Richmond.	19. D. W. McComas	of Wythe Co.
8. Daniel A. Wilson	of Cumberland.	20. Joseph L. Fry	of Wheeling.
9. William Leigh	of Halifax Co.	21. John Robertson, John S. Caskie,	of Richmond.
10. N. M. Taliaferro	of Franklin Co.		
11. Richard M. Field,	of Culpepper Co.	22. George H. Lee	of Harrison Co.
12. L. P. Thompson	of Staunton.		

FINANCES.

The aggregate debt of Virginia, on the first of February, 1850, was as follows:—

Revolutionary War debt,	bearing	6	per ct.	interest		$	24,039	17
War debt of 1812,	"	7	"	"	"		319,000	00
Int. improvement debt,	"	6	"	"	"		7,503,916	85
" "		5					1,065,600	00
" "		5½					25,300	00
Debt for subscription to banks							450,107	00
							$9,387,963	02

But of this there is held by state agents, under the control of the legislature—

By Literary Fund	$1,096,106	50
By Board Public Works	366,862	41
	1,462,968	91
Actual outstanding debt of Virginia	$7,924,994	11

The nett receipts from taxes during the year were $606,599 83, being an increase over the previous year of $9,608 39.*

"The mineral wealth of Virginia is very great. Gold, copper, lead, iron, coal, salt, limestone and marble are found, together with a number of valuable mineral springs. An attention to the business of mining has recently been excited. The belt of country in which gold is found, extends through Spotsylvania county and the adjacent country, and in a south-west direction passes into North and South Carolina, Georgia and Alabama. The gold in this state is not sufficiently concentrated to render it profitable, excepting in a few places, to engage in mining it. The coal fields in Virginia are very extensive,

* For above statistics, we are indebted to American Almanac, 1851.

and afford both the bituminous and anthracite. Large quantities have been obtained and exported from the vicinity of Richmond. Salt springs have been found in various places, and salt has been extensively manufactured on the Great Kanawha River, near Charleston. The state abounds in mineral springs, which are much resorted to: the principal are the *White and Blue Sulphur*, in Greenbriar; the *Salt* and *Red Sulphur*, and *Sweet*, in Monroe; *Hot* and *Warm*, in Bath; *Berkely*, in Morgan; Fauquier *White Sulphur*, in Fauquier; *Shannondale*, in Frederick; *Alum*, in Rockbridge; *Jordan's White Sulphur*, in Frederick; *Red*, in Alleghany; *Grayson*, in Carroll; *Botetourt*, in Roanoke; *Holston*, in Scott; *Augusta* Springs; and *Daggus Springs*, in Botetourt.*

The state is divided into 123 counties and 2 districts, eastern and western. The eastern district comprises that part of the state east of the Blue Ridge, and has 67 counties. Population in 1840, whites, 369,398; free colored, 42,294; slaves, 395,250; total, 806,942. The western district comprises that part of the state west of the Blue Ridge, and has 56 counties. Population, whites, 371,570; free colored, 7,548; slaves, 53,737; total, 432,855.

The staple productions of the state are wheat and tobacco. The exports of the state in 1840 amounted to $4,778,220; and the imports to $545,685. There were 31 commercial and 64 commission houses engaged in foreign trade, with a capital of $4,299,500; 2,736 retail dry goods and other stores, with a capital of $16,684,413; 1,454 persons employed in the lumber trade, with a capital of $113,210; 931 persons engaged in internal transportation, who with 103 butchers, packers, &c., employed a capital of $100,680; 556 persons employed in the fisheries with a capital of $28,383.

The manufactures of Virginia are not so extensive as those of some states inferior to it in territory and population. There were in 1840, domestic or family manufactures to the amount of $2,441,672; 41 woolen manufactories and 47 fulling-mills, employing 222 persons, producing articles to the amount of $147,792, with a capital of $112,350; 22 cotton manufactories, with 42,262 spindles, employing 1,816 persons, producing articles to the amount of $446,063, with a capital of $1,299,020; 42 furnaces, producing 18,810 tons of cast-iron, and 52 forges, &c., producing 5,886 tons of bar-iron, the whole employing 1,742 persons, and a capital of $1,246,650; 11 smelting houses, employing 131 persons, and producing gold to the amount of $51,758, employing a capital of $103,650; 5 smelting houses, employing 73 persons, and producing 878,648 pounds of lead, employing a capital of $21,500; 12 paper manufactories, producing articles to the amount of $216,245, and other paper manufactories producing $1,260, the whole employing 181 persons, and a capital of $1,526,080; hats and caps were manufactured to the amount of $155,778, and straw bonnets to the amount of $14,700, the whole employing 340 persons and a capital of $85,640; 660 tanneries em-

* Sherman & Smith's Gazetteer.

ploying 1422 persons, and a capital of $838,141; 982 other leather manufactories, as saddleries, &c., producing articles to the amount of $826,957, and employing a capital of $341,957; 4 glass houses, and 2 glass cutting establishments, employing 164 persons, producing articles to the value of $146,500, with a capital of $132,000; 33 potteries, employing 64 persons, producing articles to the amount of $31,380, with a capital of $10,225; 36 persons produced drugs, paints, &c., to the amount of $66,333, with a capital of $61,727; 445 persons produced machinery to the amount of $429,858; 150 persons produced hardware and cutlery to the amount of $50,504; 262 persons manufactured 9,330 small-arms; 40 persons manufactured granite and marble to the amount of $16,652; 1,004 persons produced bricks and lime to the amount of $393,253; carriages and wagons were manufactured to the amount of $647,815, employing 1,592 persons and a capital of $311,625; 1,454 distilleries produced 865,725 gallons, and 5 breweries produced 32,961 gallons, employing 1,631 persons and a capital of $187,212; 764 flouring-mills 1,041,526 barrels of flour, and with other mills employed 3,964 persons, producing articles to the amount of $7,855,499, with a capital of $5,184,669; ships were built to the amount of $136,807; 675 persons manufactured furniture to the amount of $289,391; 403 brick or stone, and 2,604 wooden houses were built, employing 4,694 persons, and cost $1,367,393; 50 printing offices and 13 binderies; 4 daily, 12 semi-weekly, and 35 weekly newspapers, and 5 periodicals, employing 310 persons and a capital of $168,850. The whole amount of capital employed in manufactures in the state was $11,360,861.

The Baptists, the most numerous religious denomination, have about 437 churches; the Presbyterians 120; the Episcopalians 65 ministers; the Methodists 170. There are also a few Lutherans, Catholics, Unitarians, Friends, and Jews.

In January, 1840, there were in this state 8 banks and branches, with a capital of $3,637,400, and a circulation of $2,513,412. At the close of the same year the public debt amounted to $6,857,161. There is a State Penitentiary located at Richmond.

The first Constitution was formed in 1776. This was altered and amended by a Convention assembled for that purpose in 1830. The executive power is vested in a Governor, elected by the joint vote of the two houses of the General Assembly. He is chosen for three years, but is ineligible for the next three. There is a Council of State, elected in like manner for three years, the seat of one being vacated every year. The senior Councillor is Lieutenant-Governor. The Senators can never be more than 36, and the Delegates, than 150; and both are apportioned anew among the counties every ten years, commencing with 1841. The Senators were elected for four years, and the seats of one-fourth of them are vacated every year. The Delegates are chosen annually. All appointments to any office of honor, trust or profit, by the Legislature, are given openly, or *viva voce*, and not by ballot. The judges of the Supreme Court of Appeals and of the Superior Courts are elected by the

and afford both the bituminous a[illegible] and hold their
been obtained and exported fr[illegible] vote of two-
springs have been found in v[illegible]
sively manufactured on the [illegible] white male citi-
The state abounds in minera[illegible] Constitution;
principal are the *White and* [illegible] interest in a freehold
and *Red Sulphur*, and *Swe*[illegible] reversionary title to
Berkely, in Morgan; *Fauq*[illegible] for six months; or
dale, in Frederick; *Alum* [illegible] hold estate, having been
in Frederick; *Red*, in A[illegible] than five years, to the
Roanoke; *Holston*, in S[illegible] 12 months shall have been
in Botetourt.* [illegible] paid the taxes assessed by

The state is divided [illegible]
western. The easte[illegible] important works of internal im-
of the Blue Ridge, a[illegible] companies, several of which have
369,398; free col[illegible] The Dismal Swamp Canal con-
The western distr[illegible] Sound, extending from Deep
Blue Ridge, and [illegible] 21 miles, at a cost of $879,864. It has
colored, 7,548; [illegible] The Alexandria Canal extends 7¼ miles,
The staple pr[illegible] The James River, and Kanawha
exports of the [illegible] Richmond to Lynchburg. The Rich-
ports to $545. [illegible] and Potomac Rail-road extends 75 miles to
houses engag[illegible] 25 miles from Richmond, proceeds
retail dry g[illegible] Richmond and Petersburg Rail-road,
1,454 perso[illegible] 23 miles to Petersburg. Petersburg and
$113,210; [illegible] extends from Petersburg 59 miles to Weldon.
103 butch[illegible] extends from near Hicksford for 18 miles to
persons e[illegible] Point Rail-road extends from Petersburg 12
The m[illegible] Chesterfield Rail-road extends from Coal
some sta[illegible] to Richmond. Portsmouth and Roanoke Rail-
1840, d[illegible] Portsmouth 8 miles, to Weldon, N. C. Win-
41 woo[illegible] Rail-road extends from Harper's Ferry 32
sons, p[illegible]
$112,3[illegible]
ing 1.
with [illegible]
cast-i[illegible]
whol[illegible]
smel[illegible]
amo[illegible]
hou[illegible]
em[illegible]
art[illegible]
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of
$[illegible]
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* A Convention has lately been in session in Virginia, and framed a new Constitution for the state, which greatly innovates upon the old one in the matters of suffrage, represen-tation, &c. These changes have long been clamorously demanded by the people of the western district, as it is called, of the state, who being but to a limited extent slaveholders, were not well pleased with the federal basis of representation. We have not before us a copy of the new Constitution, and therefore cannot speak precisely of its provisions. The people have yet to pronounce upon it.—Ed.

† We insert the following from the last Message of Governor Floyd. (See De Bow's [illegible], Vol. VIII, 285.)

VIRGINIA INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

Situated about midway between the northern boundary of the United States and the Gulf of Mexico, we escape in a great degree the rigors of the northern winters, and the scorching heat of the South. Our eastern border upon the river Potomac and the Chesapeake Bay, is dotted with harbors unsurpassed in safety and capacity. The fleets of the whole earth could ride safely at anchor within them. Our western border is washed for several hundred miles by the Ohio river, and, at other points along it, the rich region of Kentucky and the fertile valley of the Tennessee are of easy access. Besides this, the country lying between the eastern and western boundaries of which I speak, is unsurpassed for its fertility and the variety of its products. Minerals of every description are to be found of the most superior quality, and in quantities absolutely inexhaustible, whilst the earth in which they are imbedded, unlike other mineral regions, is of the most desirable

l in the tide-water country is generally poor, producing orn, oats and peas. Wheat is raised in some parts of it, ttle rice in the swamps in its southern part. Between tide- and the mountains is the tobacco country; but in the northern d counties wheat has extensively superseded tobacco; and south ames River, sufficient cotton is raised for home consumption. south-eastern counties produce apples and peaches in great undance. Among the mountains, the farmers raise large numbers f cattle and hogs. Indian corn is cultivated throughout the state.

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character for husbandry. Let this country be penetrated by improvements connecting our seaports with the Ohio, with Kentucky, and the valley of Tennessee, and it will infuse a spirit of enterprise into the population which must, in a short time, fully develope all of our resources.

The topography of the country is most favorable for the completion of those great connecting lines. From tide-water to the Mississippi river at Memphis, there is no mountain barrier interposing a serious difficulty to the construction of a rail-road, whilst the region traversed by it is inferior to none of the same extent, for mineral and agricultural resources, upon the continent of North America. The valley of the Tennessee, one of the most magnificent of all those washed by the waters of the West, the annual commerce of which is worth thirty-five millions of dollars, will find in this road an outlet for its rich products to the Atlantic. And a cargo of merchandise, landed at Norfolk or Richmond, would be safely transported to the city of Memphis, ready for distribution upon those mighty waters in less than ten days. The "Virginia and Tennessee" railroad will effect this great object, when it shall be finally completed; and it affords me great pleasure to say, we are warranted in the belief that it will be prosecuted with energy and dispatch.

The James River and Kanawha Canal, having for its object the connection of tide-water with the Ohio river, has, for a good many years, been generously sustained by appropriations of public money; and, although it has met with strong opposition, it still maintains itself steadfastly in the approbation of well-informed, reflecting men. The results to Virginia, which are to flow from its completion, will strike the mind, upon a little reflection, as really stupendous. I have no doubt but that the commerce passing through this canal, will rapidly build up the towns of Virginia, to the magnitude of the first American cities, and will rescue us, in a great measure, from the miserable consequences of our past apathy and inaction.

The effects upon the prosperity and destiny of New-York, produced by the completion of the Erie Canal, opening the commerce of the lakes to that city, are perfectly familiar to every one: the daily increasing importance of it is also quite as well understood. Without the Erie Canal, the city of New-York would have been second still to Philadelphia. Great as the advantages of this work unquestionably are, those of the James River and Kanawha Canal are undoubtedly superior. It possesses the striking advantage of lying five degrees south of the great northern work, and therefore free from the ice which obstructs the navigation there for so large a portion of the year. It touches the Ohio river far south of any water communication from the Atlantic whatever, and at a point south of which there can be across the country no water connection. It will, after the first of November, command all the trade of a great part of Ohio, Kentucky, Indiana, Illinois, and Missouri, and, most probably, of those regions lying still higher up toward the sources of the Missouri and Mississippi; for, after that period, it is unsafe to send produce north, in the direction of Boston, New-York, or Philadelphia. A striking and peculiar advantage presented by this line, is its continuity. There is no necessity whatever for transhipment. We will see canal boats, laden at the falls of St. Anthony or Council Bluff, discharging their cargoes at Lynchburg, Richmond and Norfolk. The extent and fertility of the region through which this work will pass, is unsurpassed by any accessible country within the territories of the United States. Superadded to this, the rivers, canals, and rail-roads, emptying into and resting upon the Ohio and Mississippi, will bring, from the remote interior, which in every direction they penetrate, their contributions, to swell still higher the rich tide of commerce flowing through the heart of the commonwealth. The trade in Indian corn, which has recently sprung up, and is increasing with such surprising rapidity between Europe and America, will be almost monopolized by this line, and will, of itself, presently build up and sustain a great city. Norfolk must be the point for its shipment, for it can reach there and be sent away without the injury which it is sure to sustain from detention at the more southern points. Indeed, this line will monopolize, in a great measure, the transportation of all the principal articles of food which are produced in the Mississippi valley for consumption in our Atlantic states and in Europe. It is a fact universally known, that provisions of every kind suffer injury from the climate during their transit by New-Orleans and through the Gulf.

The country west of the mountains, towards the Ohio, is rough and wild—sometimes, but not generally, fertile; but very rich as a mineral region.

RICHMOND, the capital of the state, is beautifully situated on the James River, about 130 miles from the entrance of the Chesapeake Bay. It is ornamented with many elegant structures, and is supplied with water forced up from the river to a reservoir above the level of the most elevated sites. The capitol is honored with a statue of Washington, executed by Houdon, taken from life, and considered a perfect likeness. Its climate is healthy, and its markets are abundantly supplied with fruits. The population of Richmond was about 20,000 in 1840, and for the last few years has increased rapidly. It contains extensive manufactories of tobacco, flour, iron, cotton and woolens. We insert a comparative statement of the exports of tobacco, cotton and flour from Petersburg and Richmond for three years, commencing October 1st, 1840, and ending 30th September, 1841, 1842, 1843:

	1841.	1842.	1843.		1841.	1842.	1843.
Tobacco, hhds.	34,662	32,565	36,236	Cotton, bales	5,152	5,678	1,817
Stems	6,172	3,245	2,000	Flour, bbls.	47,505	48,464	73,726

These exports went to Cowes, London, Liverpool, Glasgow, Havre, Bordeaux, Bremen, Rotterdam, Amsterdam, Marseilles, Trieste, Genoa, Rio, Pernambuco, &c. &c.

Exports, foreign and domestic, in each year from 1843 to 1848, the years ending on the 30th of September, are as follows:

	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.
Inspected, hhds.	56,788	45,855	51,126	42,680	51,726	36,725
Stock, 30th Sept.	13,420	14,362	21,873	19,160	15,363	13,959
Export to—						
London,	4,941	1,336	1,187	3,126	1,572	2,145
Liverpool,	4,265	5,367	4,717	6,615	3,328	4,622
Bristol and Glasgow,	1,036	351	664	1,205	553	1,434
Cowes,	5,459	1,075	—	750	—	—
France,	4,553	605	4,543	1,623	5,333	728
Belgium,	5,441	1,800	1,018	1,698	774	1,501
Bremen,	3,013	5,155	1,281	1,056	844	895
Holland,	6,338	3,818	1,842	2,092	627	236
Italy,	452	564	2,048	2,388	2,992	905
Gibraltar,	—	100	—	368	522	695
Hamburg,	—	397	435	—	—	—
Other ports,	50	26	23	36	15	24
Total,	35,528	20,594	17,752	20,957	16,560	13,175

Stock on hand, October 1st, 1848	hhds. 13,959	
Inspected, year ending September 30th, 1849	" 44,904	
		58,863

EXPORTS.

Great Britain,	9,667
France,	3,267
Cowes, for orders,	551
Belgium,	1,478
Bremen,	1,045
Holland,	663
Italy, Spain, &c.,	2,972
Total,	19,643

Import of manufactured tobacco at New-York, from 1st January, 1849, to 31st December inclusive:

	No. of Packages.
From Richmond,	65,876
" Petersburg,	47,618
" Norfolk,	545
" Other places,	3,555
Total,	117,594*

We give the census of Virginia at the periods of 1840 and 1850, arranged according to the two geographical divisions of the state:

		1840.	1850.	Increase.
East—	Whites	369,398	404,371	34,973
	Free colored	42,393	45,956	3,563
	Slaves	395,251	412,738	17,487
	Total, East,	806,942	863,065	56,023
West—	Whites	371,560	494,763	123,203
	Free colored	7,548	7,801	253
	Slaves	53,737	63,234	9,497
	Total, West,	432,845	565,978	132,953
	Grand Total,	1,239,787	1,429,044	188,976

Before drawing our article to a conclusion, we will give a few extracts from the work of Mr. Howison, which we have had under review. He writes with good sense and much candor, which we admire; but we must beg leave to differ with him in the matter of *slavery*—to which he seems mainly to attribute the decline, and perhaps the extinction of his native state. We coincide with him entirely in the importance of a more thorough system of education. He says:

"It is with pain we are compelled to speak of the horrible cloud of ignorance that rests upon Virginia. In the eastern section there are twenty-nine thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, and in the western, twenty eight thousand nine hundred and twenty-four—making a total of fifty-eight thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven white persons, over twenty years of age, who cannot read or write. This, however, is not all. It is computed that there are in the state 166,000 children, between seven and sixteen years of age, and therefore fit for school. Of these, about 28,000 poor children attend the Free and Lancasterian schools—an average of twelve weeks in the year for each child. Twelve thousand more children are sent to colleges, academies, and classical schools. The remaining one hundred and twenty-six thousand attend no school at all, except what can be imparted by poor and ignorant parents!

"This deplorable condition has been long felt and deplored by Virginia's most virtuous sons. Efforts have been made to ameliorate it. Education conventions have assembled, and many animated de-

* Vide De Bow's Review, Vols. I. to X.

bates have taken place. The Legislature have moved from time to time, and during the session of 1845–6, its movement was decided and beneficial. Nevertheless, the evil remains almost untouched. We pretend not to suggest any remedy. But it will be pertinent to the subject to add, that in the whole State of Massachusetts—containing, in 1840, seven hundred and thirty-seven thousand six hundred and ninety-nine persons, there were but four thousand four hundred and forty-eight white persons, over twenty years of age, who could neither read nor write.

COMMERCE OF VIRGINIA.

Foreign Imports.				Foreign Exports.			
1821	$1,078,490	1835	$691,255	1821	$3,079,209	1835	$6,064,053
1822	864,162	1836	1,106,814	1822	3,217,389	1836	6,192,040
1823	881,810	1837	813,823	1823	4,006,788	1837	3,702,714
1824	639,787	1838	577,142	1824	3,277,564	1838	3,986,228
1825	553,562	1839	913,462	1825	4,129,520	1839	5,187,196
1826	635,438	1840	545,085	1826	4,596,732	1840	4,778,220
1827	431,765	1841	377,237	1827	4,657,938	1841	5,630,286
1828	375,238	1842	316,705	1828	3,340,185	1842	3,750,396
1829	395,352	1843	187,062	1829	3,787,431	1843	1,954,510
1830	405,739	1844	267,654	1830	4,791,644	1844	2,942,279
1831	488,522	1845	230,470	1831	4,150,475	1845	2,104,584
1832	553,639	1848	215,081	1832	4,510,650	1848	3,681,412
1833	690,391	1849	241,935	1833	4,467,587	1849	3,373,738
1834	837,325	1850	426,549	1834	5,483,098	1850	3,415,646

The exports of Virginia were about the same per annum from 1791 to 1800, as from 1840 to 1845, and the imports about the same for a number of years preceding the revolution that they are now! (See De Bow's Review, vol. ii., p. 374, 1846.)

A beautiful specimen of plumbago has been discovered in Virginia from a mine which appears inexhaustible. It is within easy distance of Norfolk. A specimen has been sent to the World's Fair.

POPULATION OF VIRGINIA, 1790 to 1850.

	Free Colored.	Total Population.	Slaves.
1790	——	748,308	293,427
1800	20,124	880,200	345,797
1810	30,570	970,622	392,518
1820	37,139	1,065,366	425,153
1830	47,348	1,211,405	469.757
1840	49,842	1,239,797	448,987
1850	53,757	1,429,044	475,972

BANKS IN VIRGINIA, 1851.*

Location.	*Name of Bank.*	*President.*	*Cashier.*	*Capital.*
Alexandria,	Exchange Bk. of Va.,	Robert Jamison,	John Hoof,	107,000
do.	Farmers' Bank of Va.,	Phineas Janney,	Washington C. Page,	300,000
Buchanan,	Bank of Virginia,	Charles T. Beele,	J. Anthony,	105,000
Charleston,	do. do.	James C. MacFarland,	Samuel Hannah,	150,000
Charlestown,	Bank of the Valley,	Thomas Gregg,	Cato Moore,	190,000
Charlottesville,	Farmers' Bk. of Va.,	John R. Jones,	William A. Bibb,	104,000
Clarkesville,	Exchange do. do	Francis W. Venable,	Augustus C. Finley,	90,000
Danville,	Bank of Va,	Thomas P. Atkinson,	C. B. Taliaferro,	70,000
do.	Farmers' Bank of Va.,	Nathaniel T. Greene,	George W. Johnson,	120,000
Farmville,	do. do. do.,	William C. Flournoy,	Archibald Vaughan,	150,000
Fredericksburgh	do. do. do.,	John H. Wallace,	Arthur Goodwin,	300,000
do.	Bank of Virginia,	Hugh Mercer,	William K. Gordon,	220,000
Leesburgh,	Bank of the Valley,	John Janney,	William A. Powell,	190,000
Lynchburgh,	Bank of Virginia,	C. Dabney,	John M. Otey,	300,000
do.	Farmers' Bank of Va.,	William Radford,	Alexander Tompkins,	300,000
Morgantown,	Merchants & Mechanics',	Matthew Gay,	William Wagner,	75,000
Norfolk,	Bank of Virginia,	Aaron Milhado,	Robert W. Bowden,	200,000
do.	Exchange Bank of Va.,	William W. Sharp,	Wright Southgate,	501,000

*Bankers' Magazine.

Location.	Name of Bank.	President.	Cashier.	Capital.
Norfolk	Farmers' Bank of Va.,	N. C. Whitehead,	R. H. Chamberlain,	290,000
Parkersburgh,	North Western Bank,	James M Stephenson,	Beverly Smith,	100,000
Petersburgh,	Bank of Virginia,	Joseph Bragg,	George W. Steinbach,	400,000
do.	Exchange Bank of Va.,	Thomas S. Gholson,	Patrick Durkin,	500,000
do.	Farmers' do. do.	William Robertson,	Pleasant C. Osborne,	270,000
Portsmouth,	Bank of Va.,	John A. Chandler,	William H. Wilson,	225,000
Richmond,	do. do.,	James Caskie,	Samuel Marx,	810,000
do.	Exchange Bank of Va.,	John C. Hobson,	William P. Strother,	500,000
do.	Farmers' Bank of Va.,	William H. McFarland,	John G. Blair,	804,000
Romney,	Bank of the Valley,	David Gibson,	John McDowell,	200,000
Staunton,	do. do. do.,	James Crawford,	Edwin M. Taylor,	100,000
Wheeling,	Merchants & Mechanics',	John W. Gill,	Sobieski Brady,	441,500
do.	North Western Bank,	John C. Campbell,	Daniel Lamb,	522,600
Wellsburgh,	do. do. do.,	Adam Kuhn,	Samuel Jacob,	118,000
Winchester,	Bank of the Valley,	Thomas Allen Tidball,	Henry M. Brent,	430,000
do.	Farmers' Bank of Va.	Robert L. Baker,	Joseph H. Sherrard,	250,000
Wytheville,	do. do do.,	Stephen McGavock,	Thomas J. Morrison,	180,000
	Total 35 Banks.	*Circulation* $7,000,000.	*Specie* $2,300,000.	*Capital* $9,713,10

There are in the State of Virginia twenty incorporated and private companies, engaged in the manufacture of cotton, with an aggregate capital of $1,800,000. When in full operation, these companies employ about 54,000 spindles, producing generally coarse yarns, and sold as such, or converted into shirtings, sheetings and osnaburgs. There are ten woolen factories, running thirty sets of machinery, and having a capital of $275,000.

"It is a matter of not less mortification than astonishment, that Virginia, with an area of coal measures covering not less than 21,000 square miles, very much of which lies on or near navigable waters, and capable of yielding all the varieties of British coal, and of equal quality, should be reduced to the actual production of less than 200,000 tons, of the value of $650,000, while Great Britain, with little more than half the extent of coal measures, produces annually 37,000,000 tons, of about the value of $37,000,000 at the mines, and $180,000,000 at the markets of sale.

"And in regard to the iron trade, while Virginia has an unlimited supply of the finest ores, easily accessible for use and transportation, with the greatest abundance of coal, wood and limestone for their manufacture, yet under the operation of the present revenue laws of the country, her production, in spite of all the efforts of the state to encourage it, has shrunk to an inconsiderable amount, and is in danger of utter ruin.

"The imports of British iron during the last year were about 320,000 tons, requiring for its manufacture nearly 1,500,000 tons of coal, more than 1,000,000 tons of ore, and about 400,000 tons of limestone; all this, and more than all this, Virginia could easily have furnished, and to that extent have developed her mineral wealth and encouraged her industry, and yet she has hitherto been content to leave Great Britain the profits of its production, although the duty paid by Virginia on the imported product would have been equal to 5 per cent.—ninety-five per cent. of the whole import being made north of Mason and Dixon's line, and there confined."*

* Report of Manufacturers' Convention, 1851.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—FOREIGN COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES, 1850.

In our November number, 1850, we gave the statistics of United States trade for the year ending June, 1849; and have since, in the January, February and March numbers of the present year, added as many of the later statistics as we have been enabled to compile from the official sources. Having been kindly furnished through our Senator, Pierre Soulé, with the latest documents, we proceed to present the more elaborate statistics:

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF THE STATES, YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1850.

	Total Domestic Exports.	Total Foreign Exports.	Total Amer. and For'gn Prod. Exp'd.	In Amer. vessels. Imports.	In Foreign vessels. Imports.	Total Imports.
Maine	$1536818	29094	1556912	609155	247256	856411
New-Hampshire	8722	205	8927	19962	29117	49079
Vermont	404749	26157	430906	463092		463092
Massachusetts	8253473	2428290	10681763	22106011	8268673	30374684
Rhode Island	206299	9966	216265	251708	6595	258303
Connecticut	241262	668	241930	311927	60463	372390
New-York	41502800	11209989	52712789	88147721	22975803	111123524
New-Jersey	1655		1655		1494	1494
Pennsylvania	4049464	452142	4501606	10795462	1270692	12066154
Delaware						
Maryland	6589481	377872	6967353	5529682	594519	6124201
District of Columbia	80388	200	80588	59219	600	59819
Virginia	3413158	2468	3415646	172878	253721	426599
North Carolina	416501		416501	179249	144443	323692
South Carolina	11446892	908	11447800	1313658	620127	1933785
Georgia	7551943		7551943	306883	330081	636964
Florida	2607968	15656	2623624	30241	65468	95709
Alabama	10544858		10544858	108134	757228	865362
Louisiana	37698277	407073	38105350	8107929	2652570	10760499
Mississippi						
Tennessee				27966		27966
Missouri				359643		359643
Ohio	217532	100	217632	398999	183505	582504
Kentucky				190987		190987
Michigan	132045		132045	144102		144102
Illinois	17669		17669	7783	7922	15705
Texas	24958		24958	14652	10998	25650
California						
Oregon						
Total	$136946912	14951808	151898720	139657043	$38481275	178138318

2.—EXPORTS AND IMPORTS U. S., YEAR ENDING JUNE 30TH, 1850.

COUNTRIES.	Exports, domestic.	Exports, foreign.	Total exports.	Imports.
Russia	666435	198506	864941	1511572
Prussia	70645	27991	98636	27469
Sweden and Norway	668580	51610	720190	1032117
Swedish West Indies	98176	11166	99342	2193
Denmark	165874	20706	186580	527
Danish West Indies	867140	114818	981958	267459
Hanse Towns	4320780	885742	5206522	8787874
Hanover				
Holland	2188101	410564	2604665	1686967
Dutch East Indies	180533	262952	443485	444404
Dutch West Indies	364335	56683	421018	530146
Dutch Guiana	97014	5425	102439	71043
Belgium	2168357	375403	2543760	2404954
England	64686959	4210271	68897230	72118971
Scotland	3021740	183679	3205419	2746670
Ireland	1025031	42693	1067724	293783

COUNTRIES.	Exports, domestic.	Exports, foreign.	Total exports.	Imports.
Gibraltar	186307	60482	246789	44269
Malta	75329	39051	114380	11354
British East Indies	502613	156846	659459	2865016
Cape of Good Hope	143219		143219	72206
Mauritius				
Honduras	171984	16551	188535	178690
British Guiana	502776	22663	525439	14591
British West Indies	3612802	178644	3791446	1126968
Canada	4641451	1289370	5930821	4285470
Newfoundland				
Falkland Islands				
British American Colonies	3116840	501374	3618214	1358992
Other British possessions				497
France, on the Atlantic	16934791	1724915	18659706	25835170
France, on the Mediterranean	1015486	158155	1173641	1702855
French West Indies	269377	18291	287668	75684
Miquelon and French Fisheries	2517		2517	
French Guiana	43405	1382	44787	12551
Bourbon	12575	2200	14775	10005
French possessions in Africa				
Spain, on the Atlantic	605659	28558	634217	380181
Spain, on the Mediterranean	3256362	96855	3353217	1702214
Teneriffe and other Canaries	20524	5065	25589	85223
Manilla and Philippine Islands	16817	1450	18267	1336866
Cuba	4530256	460041	4990297	10292398
Other Spanish West Indies	816062	93591	909653	2067866
Portugal	172978	5236	178214	339763
Madeira	136874	6527	143401	114729
Fayal and other Azores	14421	2152	16573	16328
Cape de Verds	47043	2167	49210	
Italy	1567166	239904	1807070	2105077
Sicily	50577	13024	63601	822629
Sardinia	170764	86136	256900	205
Tuscany	45664	23468	69132	
Ionian Islands				
Trieste, and other Austrian ports	1179893	312111	1492004	467601
Turkey	204397	53344	257741	801023
Hayti	1211007	139181	1350188	1544771
Mexico	1498791	514036	2012827	2135366
Central America	57225	12967	70192	261459
New Grenada	970619	285600	1256219	591992
Venezuela	678462	340008	1018470	1920247
Bolivia				
Brazil	2723767	473347	3197114	9324429
Argentine Republic	718331	346311	1064642	2653877
Cisplatine Republic	60024	1518	61542	
Chili	1297133	125588	1422721	1796877
Peru	258939	16789	275728	170753
China	1485961	119256	1605217	6593462
Liberia				
West Indies, generally	67934		67934	9417
South America, generally	22256	50442	72698	86659
Europe, generally				
Asia, generally	315463	13321	328784	402599
Africa, generally	730932	28334	759266	524722
South Sea Islands	169025	20837	189862	
Equador	24414	10511	34925	4618
Pacific Ocean				
Atlantic Ocean				26
Indian Ocean				
Sandwich Islands				64474
Australia				
Patagonia				
Uncertain places				
North-West Coast				
Total	$136946912	$14951808	$151898720	$178138318

3.—INCREASE OF BRITISH SHIPPING IN OUR PORTS.

The following table shows the amount of American and British tonnage which entered our ports at various periods, from 1830 to the present time:

	American.	British.
1830	967,227	87,231
1835	1,352,633	529,993
1844	1,977,438	766,747
1847	2,101,350	993,210
1848	2,393,482	1,177,104
1849	2,638,351	1,482,707
1850	2,573,016	1,450,539

It appears from the foregoing, that twenty years ago the relative position, in the matter of tonnage, of the two parties in our own ports, stood about as eleven American to one British; it is now less than two to one. There has been a little falling off in both the past year; but greater in American than British tonnage.

The following table shows the whole amount of tonnage which entered our ports in the past three years:

	American.	British.	Other Foreign.
1848	2,393,482	1,177,104	228,067
1849	2,658,321	1,482,707	227,808
1850	2,573,016	1,450,539	375,084

The above figures are instructive, and furnish a subject for reflection. It will be seen, that the whole average increase in Foreign tonnage far exceeds our own; that American tonnage has fallen off the past year 85,000 tons, and British tonnage only 32,000 tons; while Foreign tonnage, so called, has increased 50 per cent.

4.—WHALE FISHERY.

REVIEW OF THE WHALE FISHERY FOR 1850.

We present to our readers a full and reliable view of the Whale Fishery for the last year, as compared with previous years. By this, it will be seen at a glance, that the past has been a year of great prosperity in the trade. The number of ships returning with full cargoes has been large, while prices have risen to an unprecedented height. Nevertheless, the importation of Oil in 1850 will be found to fall short of that of 1849 about 7,000 bbls. Sperm, and 48,000 bbls. Whale, and the number of arrivals is less by six Sperm and nineteen Right Whalers; yet the stock on hand is about the same as on the 1st Jan., 1850. This discrepancy as regards Whale Oil, is undoubtedly owing to a diminished consumption, arising from the very high figure at which Oil has been held, which has forced many substitutes into the market, and seriously impaired exportations.

The number of vessels employed in the Fishery is about the same as that of last year. Of the fleet, 145 have cruised in the Russian and Arctic Seas during the last season, with great success; indeed, the average quantity of Oil taken is larger than in any previous year.

We regret to say that accounts from the Sperm Whalers in the Pacific are not at all encouraging. The old cruising grounds are pretty well exhausted for the present, and very light catchings are to be expected. If we are to judge by present indications, importations of Sperm Oil for the coming year will hardly exceed 75,000 bbls., while that of Whale Oil will not, probably, fall short of 275,000 bbls.

Perhaps no better evidence can be offered of the confidence felt by business men than the fact, that no less than fourteen first class vessels are in process of construction, or are under contract, all intended for the business of this district alone, while five or six will be added to the New-London fleet.

IMPORTATIONS IN 1847–1850.

	Sperm Oil.	Whale Oil.	Bone.
1850	92,892 bbls.	200,608 bbls.	2,889,000 lbs.
1849	100,944 "	248,492 "	2,281,100 "
1848	107,976 "	280,656 "	2,013,000 "
1847	120,753 "	313,150 "	3,341,680 "

Number of ships engaged in the North Pacific Fishery for the last four years, and the average quantity of Oil taken:

	Ships.	Average.	Total.
1847	177	bbls. 1,059	187,453
1848	159	" 1,164	185,266
1849	155	" 1,334	206,850

In 1850, the North Pacific fleet consisted of 145 ships, (as nearly as can now be ascertained,) 110 of which only have yet been heard from, having taken an average of 1,748 bbls. this season.

VESSELS IN THE FISHERY.

Total vessels, January 1, 1851, 502 ships and barks, 24 brigs, 27 schooners, of the total tonnage, 171,974. Of these, New-Bedford owns 245 ships, Fairhaven 45, Nantucket 53, New-London 44, etc.

5.—COMMERCE OF CUBA.

The total boxes sugar exported from Havana in 1850, were 743,525 against 602,220 in 1849; from Matanzas, 303,570 in 1850, against 241,106 in 1849; total arrobes of coffee exported in 1850, 160,739—1849, 497,264, from Havana. From Matanzas, the exports were, 1850, 5,215 arrobes, and in 1849, 54,582.

EXPORTS SUGAR.

	1850.	1849.	1848.
United States	270,756	127,133	246,243
Russia and Cowes (whites)	144,637	110,912	91,934
Great Britain and Continent of Europe	412,348	414,236	448,498
Mediterranean	121,828	61,709	57,205
Spain	97,626	129,336	151,762
Total bxs.	1,047,095	843,326	995,642

EXPORTS MOLASSES.

The Exports are as follows:

	1850.	1849.	1848.
From Havana hhds.	36,109	35,411	26,528
Matanzas	80,091	59,795	52,286
Cardenas	75,632	65,283	71,136
Mariel	8,607	8,433	7,213
Total hhds.	200,439	168,922	157,163
Of which to the United States hhds.	163,502	144,644	148,666
To the British Provinces	12,645	10,404	5,239
To Great Britain	24,292	13,874	3,358
Total hhds.	200,439	168,922	157,163

6.—COMMERCE OF SAN FRANCISCO, 1849 AND 1850.

EXPORTS OF GOLD DUST.

September 1 to November 11, 1849	$2,094,120
November 12, 1849, to December 13, 1850	28,966,035
Total cleared at Custom-House	$31,060,155

TONNAGE ARRIVED.

	American.	Foreign.	Total.
November 12, 1849, to March 31, 1850	24,252	51,297	75,549
April 1 to June 30, 1850	28,692	45,868	74,561
July 1 to September 30, 1850	30,029	51,349	81,378

From December 1 to 13, 1850 :

	American Vessels.	Foreign Vessels.	Passengers.
Arrived	31	24	627
Cleared	52	19	1,435
Duties received in November			$174,680 21

IMPORTS.

	American,	Foreign.	Total.
Nov. 12, 1849, to March 31, 1850	$58,917 40	$1,379,447 75	$1,438,365 15
April 1 to June 30, 1850	343,976 70	934,961 35	1,278,948 05
July 1 to September 30, 1350	394,381 00	1,037,553 35	1,431,934 35
	$797,275 10	$3,351,962 45	$4,149,247 55

7.—RECEIPTS OF BREADSTUFFS AND PROVISIONS AT NEW-YORK AND NEW-ORLEANS.

The following is a most interesting table, in showing how New-York is increasing her annual receipts of western produce, and how she already compares with New-Orleans :

Receipts at New-Orleans by river, in 1848, 1849 and 1850, to September 31—3 years.			Receipts at the Hudson River by canals, in 1848, 1849 and 1850, to close of navigation—3 years.
Flour	2,312,121	bbls.	8,636,207
Pork	1,536,817	bbls.	211,018
Beef	200,901	bbls.	264,072
Wheat	852,497	bush.	8,798,759
Corn	9,758,750	bush.	11,178,228
Other grains	5,350,151	bush.	11,210,239
Bacon	135,622,515	lbs	26,364,156
Butter	6,215,970	lbs	61,695,964
Cheese	8,955,880	lbs	97,596,632
Lard	292,110,060	lbs	27,137,175

8.—LIVE STOCK TRADE OF JEFFERSON, LOUISIANA.

Our little neighbor town, or suburb, is doing a *driving business* in cattle, thereby showing the *cloven-foot* always foremost.

The following is the yearly statement of the amount of stock landed and sold at Jefferson City, in the parish of Jefferson, with as near an estimate of the value of the stock as could be obtained by experienced and careful judges. The statement is made up from various daily and private registers :

1850.	Beeves.	Calves.	Sheep.	Hogs.	Cows.	Estimated value.
March	1,789	2,400	2,300	1,989	211	91,440
April	1,973	2,642	2,846	2,160	207	97,380
May	1,814	2,404	2,600	2,119	220	93,290
June	3,779	2,693	5,557	1,356	148	108,778
July	2,479	3,443	2,609	1,412	157	83,251
August	2,104	2,540	2,823	1,644	93	86,524
September	2,878	3,497	3,724	1,498	321	114,656
October	2,631	3,078	2,471	3,505	747	139,955
November	3,532	2,350	4,518	2,475	485	139,520
December	3,099	2,774	5,748	4,890	347	146,340
1851.						
January	3,522	1,692	3,050	3,928	242	175,713
February	4,543	2,608	2,846	3,022	693	212,842
Total	34,143	32,031	41,092	30,008	4871	$1,489,617

9.—CONTEST OF CINCINNATI WITH ATLANTIC CITIES.

The Cincinnati Prices Current concludes an interesting discussion on the prospects of that city, with the following remarks:

We thus see that the *aggregate* quantity of merchandise transported on the Public Works increased, from 1848 to 1849, in amount equal to 3,205,708 lbs. Now let us compare the movements in the lake ports and the river ports:

	1848.	1850.
Aggregate cleared at lake ports	21,619,160 lbs.	21,238,280 lbs.
Aggregate arrived at river ports	6,918,992 "	10,605,580 "
Lake ports *diminished*		619,120 lbs.
River ports *increased*		3,786,588 "

While the clearances of merchandise from the lake ports diminished, that from the river ports has increased 50 per cent!

We have now shown by these tables, digested from the actual returns,—

1st. That the trade in Sugar is almost altogether from Cincinnati and Portsmouth.

2d. The trade in Coffee is increasing at Cincinnati and Portsmouth, while it is diminishing from the North.

3d. That the trade in Merchandise is diminishing from the Northern ports, and rapidly increasing from Cincinnati and Portsmouth.

The conclusion from this review is, that not only is the commerce of Cincinnati rapidly increasing, but that the time is near at hand when it must *command the entire trade* of Ohio and Indiana, notwithstanding the great efforts to maintain the ascendency of the Atlantic cities.

10.—COMMERCE AND RESOURCES OF THE WEST.

In noticing in our February No. the Address of the *Western Convention*, held last winter in Evansville, Indiana, we pronounced it, *in the main*, an able document, and promised some farther extracts from it at our leisure. These we will now proceed to give.

COAL RESOURCES OF THE NORTH-WEST.

Take but a portion of our coal-field, embracing the southern and western counties of Indiana, part of Iowa, Wisconsin, and Illinois, what is commonly called the great "Illinois Coal-field." "It equals in area the entire island of Great Britain, extending from south-east to north-west, from Oil Creek and Rome, on the Ohio, to the mouth of Rock River on the Mississippi River, a distance of three hundred miles; and south to north, from the waters of Green River and Tradewater in Kentucky, to the waters of Little Vermilion, in Lasalle county, Illinois, a distance of three hundred and twenty-five miles; and from south-west to north-east, from St. Louis and the waters of the west branch of Saline River, in Gallatin county, Illinois, to the forks of the Fox and Kankakee Rivers, a distance of two hundred and fifty miles—a coal-field occupying the greater part of Illinois, about one-third of Indiana, a north-western strip of Kentucky, and extending into Iowa, embracing every variety of bituminous coal. The thickness of the entire mass is supposed to be from 1,200 to 2,000 feet, and contains at least seven *workable* beds of coal. If we assume the average thickness of these coal-beds, collectively, at 21 feet, which is probably below the truth, and the area over which they extend at 200 miles square, or 40,000 square miles, then we have a mass of coal on lands of which the government is the *largest proprietor*, of 23 trillions 417 billions 856 millions cubic feet, or 867 billions 328 millions cubic yards or tons of coal, (a cubic yard of coal being nearly equal to a ton.) Let us imagine this coal worked, and estimating the profit on a ton of coal at fifty cents, this would give, in round numbers, a clear income of four hundred thousand millions of dollars to be derived from the working of this coal-field. It may also be further remarked, that the strata of this coal-field is more easily accessible along the south-eastern and south-western margins, *along the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers*, than toward the north-east, by reason of the extensive diluvial deposits, which cover the

strata in that direction. But coal comprises, by no means, the entire resources of these valleys. The slaty clays contain certain extensive deposits of clay iron stone, an ore easily and profitably melted into pig iron. Great Britain produces annually 600,000 tons of iron from ore of the same quality, procured in a similar geological position. Valuable and extensive deposits of hydrated oxide of iron, an ore of the same kind worked in Tennessee, are also of frequent occurrence near the margin of this coal basin. The proximity of these ores to coal greatly enhances their value, since this is the material used most frequently for their reduction. The sandstone at the base of this formation affords materials for furnaces, grindstones, and buildings; while some of the slaty clays, when disintegrated, produce excellent fire clay. The materials for the production of copperas and alum are also widely distributed amongst the slate clays, under and overlying the strata of coal. The importance of the limestone, (so abundant in the whole region,) as a flux for the iron ore, for constructions and burning into lime, are too well known to need comment.

11.—STEAMBOAT BUSINESS OF THE WEST.

From the document above named, it would appear that the whole number of steamers built in the United States, for the last twenty-five years, was two thousand four hundred and ninety two, as follows:

From 1824 to 1829	194
From 1829 to 1834	304
From 1834 to 1839	504
From 1839 to 1844	521
From 1844 to 1849	969
Total	2,492

Two thousand five hundred steamboats built within twenty-five years! If we give two hundred tons as the average of these boats, (and it is probably below the mark,) we find that the steamboat tonnage in that period amounted to *five hundred thousand tons.*

Let us now see what part the West had in this business. From the reports on commerce for the years 1846, '48, '49, we find in three years the steamboat holders of the West compare with the total number as follows.

	In the West.	Total in the U. S.
In 1846	130	175
In 1848	152	225
In 1850	155	208
Aggregate	437	608

Thus we see, that of the whole number of steamboats built the last three years in the United States, *two-thirds* were built on the Western waters; and, of this number, one-sixth were built in Ohio, and one-seventh in Cincinnati. The largest number of steamboats built at any one place were built in Pittsburg. In 1836 there were 143 steamboats, carrying 24,000 tons, navigating the Western waters. In the last five years there have been built 1,000 steamboats. Of these, seven hundred were built on the Western rivers. The life of the steamboat does not average more than five years, but there are a large number which have been repaired, and are much older than five years. It is safe to say, then, that there are more than eight hundred steamboats now running on the Western waters; and, averaging their tonnage at two hundred tons each, carrying *one hundred and sixty thousand tons of freight.* "Here we see *one* element of the growth of Western commerce—a commerce whose magnitude must, at an early day, surpass anything the world has ever yet seen of commercial development."

12.—COMMERCIAL STATISTICS OF THE WEST.

It is impossible to approximate to anything like the truth in reference to our commercial statistics. We can only aim at it by details furnished in solitary cases, by taking our own products and values, as furnished by the audi-

essors' books in the West—and to all of which we have not at ss. Take the article of pork, for instance, and the same may be . It is out of our power to give the aggregate quantity shipped on n waters in any one year. The amount is enormous, and would e credited if we had the figures. Some approximation, however, may by taking the State of Ohio, as an example of the number of hogs as- r taxes for the last three years. In 1848, the number was 1,486,191— ,730,466—1850, 1,728,794. Of this quantity, it is fair to suppose that rds is exported. We have spoken of the connections between the differ- oints in the valley of the Mississippi. They are immense. Not less than *y thousand miles* of river coast is accessible to *this point* by steamboat navi- on, and the effect of these vast communications on the whole West and uth-west is daily manifesting itself. What is the result? Cities are doub- ng and trebling their population, farms are opening in all directions, our for- ests are bowing before the axe of the settler, the green sod of our prairies is everywhere broken up by the plough of the husbandman, our corn and wheat fields teem with the rich abundance of their products. We are not, as we were a few short years since, laboring for our own sustenance, but freighting our products to every clime, where American and foreign ships can carry it; and, in return, receiving the products of other lands for our wants, and upon which *duties* are paid by us to the Government, thus swelling their coffers to an amount, we venture to say, received from no other portion of the Union; for there is scarcely an article subject to duty but what enters into the consumption of the Western people; and the importation of these dutiable articles are swelling to an amount that would hardly be credited, did not the statistics of the West show that this was true. Take, for instance, the imports into Cincinnati twenty-five years since, and compare them with what they are now. We set down the value instead of the quantity:

	1826.	1848.
Coffee	$198,000	$1,080,000
Sugar	80,000	1,629,000
Brandies, Wines, Spices, &c.	200,000	500,000

And yet this is but a single point in the valley. We presume that Pittsburg, Louisville, and St. Louis, show an equal if not greater increase; and the consequence is, instead of paying duties, as we formerly did, at ports on the Atlantic, New-York or New-Orleans, our own commercial towns are *ports of entry and delivery*, and the duties are paid *here*, and the result is now a *direct* importation of foreign merchandise to all the principal towns on the Ohio and Mississippi rivers. These importations keep pace with our increase of population, and but a few years will elapse before the *customs here* will compare favorably with many cities on the seaboard. In former years the foreign goods imported had their duties paid at the cities on the seaboard where they were landed. They were then carried across the mountains, or up the Mississippi and Ohio, to their several destinations in the West. But the whole aspect of commerce in the West is now, in a very great degree, changed by the change of locomotion; and, as has been very justly and truly stated, "the merchants of Memphis, St. Louis, Louisville, Cincinnati, and Pittsburg, will be as much the merchants of America as the merchants of New-York, Philadelphia, or Baltimore." The growth of our cities, and the immense distribution of foreign goods here *now*, proves the fact conclusively—while every year the importation of foreign goods to the West *directly* is increasing. The table above shows what it has been to a single city. And this is but one among the great number that are to spring up in our valley. The fact is—and the statistical tables will prove it—that for the last ten years, the commerce of the West has grown faster than its population, great as that is. Among the avenues, which lead this population and this trade to the West and South-west, the principal ones are the Ohio and Mississippi rivers—extending, with their tributaries, (many of which are as navigable most seasons as the streams into which they empty,) a distance of twenty thousand miles—running through a region unsurpassed in the world for its agricultural products and mineral resources—running from north to south through

eighteen degrees of latitude—and having on their margin and along their borders thirteen States of the Confederacy, embracing a population five times as large as the good "old thirteen," at the first organization of our government. What has Congress done for their improvement? Nothing—absolutely nothing. And these great arteries, these great "inland seas," which waft on their surface annually millions of human beings, and carry on their waters an inland commerce far exceeding that carried across the ocean by our whole domestic and foreign marine, are *now*, so far as navigation is concerned—so far as improvement is concerned, but little, if any, better than when the first "broadhorn" floated down the Ohio and Mississippi fifty years ago, and deposited her cargo of flour and whisky in a two months' voyage at the *Spanish port* of New-Orleans.

The action of Congress towards the West has been heretofore of the most anomalous character. Occasionally holding out the promise of some great benefit, of some act to be done which should promote, in some degree, a Western interest, they have so contrived it, that only some *initiatory* step should be taken, and then the matter has slumbered, or so worded the act conferring the benefit, that it has, in its *effects*, been rendered entirely nugatory.

13.—THE NORTH CARRYING ON THE SLAVE-TRADE.

The New-York Express thus classifies the American vessels engaged in the Slave-trade, from the ports of Brazil, and remarks:

FREE STATES.	Vessels.
Massachusetts	19
New-York	12
Pennsylvania	3
Maine	3
Rhode-Island	2
Connecticut	1
Total	40
SLAVE STATES.	
Maryland	4
Florida	1
Total	5

These facts deserve to be remembered. We have it here, notoriously obvious, that the odium of this foreign traffic does not attach to the South, but to some of the avaricious men of the "Free-soil, Abolition" North. Massachusetts, too, is in the advance, and runs up a bill of crime against her of *nineteen*, out of the forty-five vessels, divided among six states, while her share, by the simple rule of division, should be less than *seven*. New-York, with less "conscience," multiplies seven into twelve—and her sin is great even at that; but, compared with Massachusetts, so meek and so philanthropic, her offence will scarce reach an unit. These figures ought not to be overlooked, for they deserve to be treasured among the archives of New-England, in the same nook with the summary proceedings of the Abolitionists against the claimants of the Crafts. They afford ample material for future history,

14.—COMMERCE OF CHARLESTON, 1850.

1.—THE FOLLOWING AMERICAN VESSELS ARRIVED FROM FOREIGN PORTS:

Britain. 23 ships, 10 barks, 4 brigs; France, 2 ships; Spain, 1 brig; Brazil, 3 ships and 1 brig; Danish West Indies, 1 bark; Honduras, 1 schooner; Br. West Indies, 1 brig and 1 schooner; Hayti, 1 schooner; Cuba, 17 ships, 1 bark, 28 brigs, 33 schooners. Total tonnage arrived, 49,351. Employing 2,055 men. Total vessels, 128.

2.—AMERICAN VESSELS CLEARED FOR FOREIGN PORTS.

Russia, 1 ship and 1 bark; Belgium, 1 ship and 4 barks; Holland, 1 ship; Britain, 38 ships, 4 barks and 5 schooners; France, 9 ships, 3 barks, 3 schooners; Buenos Ayres, 1 bark; Cuba, 18 ships, 1 bark, 27 brigs and 47 schooners. Total tonnage cleared, 66,367. Men employed, 2,524. Total vessels, 164.

3.—FOREIGN VESSELS ARRIVED FROM FOREIGN PORTS.

Sweden, 2 barks, 2 schooners; Denmark, 1 bark; Holland, 1 bark; England, Man, &c., 17 ships, 24 barks and 6 brigs; Scotland, 1 ship, 2 barks; Hanse Towns, 3 brigs; Ireland, 2 ships, 1 bark; France, 2 brigs; Newfoundland, 1 brig, 1 schr.; Brazils, 1 brig, 1 schooner; Br. West Indies, 1 brig. 6 schooners; Spain, 2 ships. 3 barks, 13 brigs; Fr. West Indies, 2 ships, 3 barks, 2 brigs, 2 schooners; Buenos Ayres, 1 brig; Cuba, 4 ships, 4 barks, 20 brigs, 3 schooners. Total tonnage, 47,359 87-95. Employing 1,900 men, and 219 boys. Total vessels, 133.

4.—FOREIGN VESSELS CLEARED FOR FOREIGN PORTS.

Sweden, 2 brigs; Denmark and Norway, 8 ships, 2 barks, 1 brig, 1 schooner; Holland, 1 bark, 1 brig; England, Man, &c., 21 ships, 26 barks, 3 brigs, 1 schooner; Scotland, 1 ship, 1 bark, 2 brigs; Hanse Towns, 1 ship, 6 barks, 6 brigs, 2 schooners; France, 3 ships, 2 barks, 3 brigs, 1 schooner; British West Indies, 5 brigs, 14 schooners; Spain, 5 ships, 4 barks, 34 brigs; Prussia, 1 bark, 1 brig; Belgium, 1 bark; Honduras, 1 bark; Cuba, 1 ship, 1 bark, 2 brigs, 3 schooners. Total tonnage, 56,463 51-95. Employing 2,212 men, and 167 boys. Total vessels, 168.

5.—AMERICAN VESSELS ARRIVED COASTWISE.

New-York, 97 ships, 23 barks, 30 brigs, 55 schooners; Philadelphia, 21 ships, 8 brigs, 69 schooners; Boston, 8 ships, 20 barks, 17 brigs, 3 schooners; Baltimore, 1 bark, 8 brigs, 64 schooners; New-Orleans, 11 barks. 23 brigs, 11 schooners; other ports, 7 ships, 7 barks, 10 brigs, 54 schooners. Total tonnage, 181,667. Employing 6,517 men, and 3 boys. Total vessels, 547.

*6.—AMERICAN VESSELS CLEARED COASTWISE.

New-York, 40 ships, 18 barks, 43 brigs, 9 schooners; Philadelphia, 3 ships, 9 barks, 20 brigs, 42 schooners; Boston, 2 ships, 14 barks, 2 brigs, 5 schooners; Baltimore, 1 bark, 13 brigs, 45 schooners; N. Orleans, 1 ship, 13 barks, 11 brigs, 9 schooners; San Francisco, 2 ships, 3 barks, 2 brigs, 2 schooners; other ports, 5 ships, 5 barks, 78 brigs, 63 schooners. Total tonnage, 78,072 66. Employing 3,410 men. Total vessels, 460.

15.—THE COTTON TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

The following table gives the exports of Cotton from the United States for a number of years, also the average price per pound:

	Total pounds.	Value.	Average price per lb.
1821	124,893,405	$20,157,484	16.2
1822	144,675,985	24,035,058	16.6
1823	173,793,270	20,445,220	11.8
1824	142,369,663	21,947,401	15.4
1825	176,449,007	36,846,649	20.9
1826	204,535,415	25,025,214	12.2
1827	294,310,115	29,359,545	10
1828	210,590,463	22,487,229	10.7
1829	264,837,186	26,575,311	10
1830	298,499,102	29,674,883	9.9
1831	376,979,784	25,289,492	9.1
1832	322,215,122	31,724,682	9.8
1833	324,698,604	36,191,105	12.1
1834	384,717,907	49,448,402	12.8
1835	387,358,992	64,861,301	16.8
1836	423,631,367	71,284,925	16.8
1837	444,211,537	63,240,102	14.2
1838	595,952,277	61,556,811	10.3
1839	413,624,212	61,338,982	14.8
1840	743,941,061	63,870,107	8.5
1841	530,204,100	54,330,341	10.2
1642	584,717,017	47,593,464	8.1
1843	792,297,106	49,119,086	6.2
1844	663,633,455	54,063,501	8.1
1845	872,905,996	51,739,643	5.92
1846	547,555,055	42,767,341	7.81
1847	537,219,958	53,415,847	10.34
1848	814,274,431	61,998,294	7.61
1849	1,036,602,269	66,396,967	6.4
1850	635,381,601	71,984,717	11.3

DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES.

1.—AUTAUGAVILLE FACTORY, ALABAMA.

J. D. B. De Bow, Esq.:

As it is one of the objects of your Review to notice fully the manufacturing progress and interest in the South, and show to the world that our section is fully aware of the resources it possesses, and of the necessity of applying them to its advantage, I will present to your notice the flourishing condition of a new Cotton Factory, which, I believe, has not yet come under your observation:

Autaugaville Factory is situated on Swift Creek, in Autauga County, Alabama, four miles from Vernon, on the Alabama River, and fourteen miles west of Prattville. The village which gives the name to the factory, has been built up within two or three years past, and is rapidly increasing in population, wealth and importance. The present number of inhabitants is about 400, and a more moral, industrious and thriving set of people you will seldom see anywhere. A tract of land containing 800 acres, is under the control of the stockholders; and, according to an act of the Legislature, no kind of ardent spirits is allowed to be vended within two miles of the premises.

Swift Creek is a deep, bold and regular stream, affording, at all times, a sufficiency of water to answer every necessary purpose. The main building is of brick, 150 by 50 feet, and made fire-proof, as are all the others attached to it. The factory was started in July, 1850, and contains machinery of the latest and most improved style. The cost of the machinery, I understand, was $40,000. When the factory is thoroughly completed, and in full operation, which will be in a few months, it will work 3,000 spindles and 100 looms; and allowing to each loom 40 yards of cloth, will manufacture the handsome sum of 4,000 yards per day. The number of hands required is only 120, and all of these are Southern laborers, taken from the immediate vicinity. At present, only cotton goods are manufactured, which consist of a very excellent quality of osnaburgs, and cottons as high as No. 14; but, in a short time, it is probable, that woolen goods will also be manufactured. The number of bales of cotton consumed in one year are about 1,000.

The projectors of this praiseworthy enterprise were Rev. David B. Smedley, Major Lewis Tyns, and Capt. John N. Stoudenmire. The board of directors consists of the following gentlemen, viz.: Col. Samuel Stoudenmire, President; Malcolm Smith, Lewis Houser, Col. Edward Stoudenmire, Rev. David B. Smedley; William Stringfellow, Agent.

2.—MOBILE ROPE-WORKS.

Some few weeks since a couple of enterprising and experienced manufacturers from St. Louis, the Messrs. Arnold, arrived in our city and commenced the manufacture of rope. Up to this time their operations have been carried on a few miles from the city; but they have now nearly completed a rope-walk 600 feet long, just beyond Bloodgood's Factory. So soon as they move to their new location, they will be enabled to manufacture about five tons of hemp a week. They are now engaged in making what we believe they call packing yarn, which is used by the presses in the city in preference to the common bale rope, as it is so made that it does not stretch, no matter what may be the pressure. They will also be prepared to make any kind of cordage for ships, from a cable down. We are glad to learn that they sell all they can make, and hope the demand and price will justify them in extending their business. If all the rope shipped up the rivers from this port was manufactured in Mobile, much better would it be for the country. These men broke up an extensive establishment in St. Louis to come to Mobile, believing they could manufacture rope here in the market where it is sold, and where they could learn exactly what kinds are needed, at a better advantage than could be done in the West. They are, as we learn, after having partially tried the experiment, still of the same opinion.

Enterprises like this should be encouraged. They not only benefit the coun-

try, but are the very life-blood of a city. It is, too, the only system through which we can build up a genuine independence. No people ever were, or ever can be, truly free and independent, who depend upon other nations or countries for almost everything they need.

It is obviously the policy of our planters and factors to encourage this rope factory, as well as the establishment of others. They can do this by giving the articles made at home, other things being equal, the preference. The Messrs. Arnold expect for the present to use horse-power, but contemplate getting an engine as soon as business will justify. They now employ twenty hands.

3.—SOUTHERN STEAM-SHIP ENTERPRISE.

Mr. Ambrose W. Thompson, a large capitalist, has proposed to the Virginia Legislature to take two-fifths, if the state will take the residue, of the stock to establish a line of steamers between Norfolk and Antwerp, touching at other ports in England and France. The state to issue for her part her six per cent. bonds, with coupons, running ten years, and to be secured by a mortgage on the steamers. It is thought that the Legislature will entertain the proposal. The opinions of many members are known to be favorable to it.

4.—DOMESTIC MANUFACTURES OF THE UNITED STATES.

We give below a table showing the value of domestic cotton manufactures, including white, printed, and colored goods, exported from the United States in each of the past twenty-two years. It will be seen from this table, that in 1828, the cotton goods exported amounted to $1,010,332, and in 1848 to $5,718,209—showing an increase in value of nearly 500 per cent.; while it must also be borne in mind, that with this great increase in exportation, there was, all the time, a far greater increase in domestic consumption, corresponding with the increase in our population:

Years.		Years.	
1828	$1,010,232	1839	$2,905,033
1829	1,250,457	1840	3,549.607
1830	1,218,183	1841	3,122,546
1831	1,126,313	1842	2,770,190
1832	1,229,574	1843	3,233,550
1833	2,532,517	1844	2,898,780
1834	2,004,994	1845	4.327.923
1835	2,858,681	1846	3,545,481
1836	2,255,681	1847	4,082,522
1837	2,831,475	1848	5,718,209
1838	3,758,755	1849	4,421,091

5.—COTTON SPINDLES IN GREAT BRITAIN.

The rapid increase in spinning will be apparent from the following:

In 1829, the number of mule spindles used in the cotton manufacture of England, was estimated by our friend, Mr. John Kennedy, at 7,000,000
1832, according to Mr. Bains, and others 9,000,000
1845, our estimate 17,500,000
1850, according to a Government return just published 20,977,017

The following table shows at a glance, the quantity of cotton taken by the trade annually for the last twenty years; we have reduced the deliveries into yarn at the present average weekly production per spindle, and have taken No. 40's mule yarn (a much higher No. than the present average production,) as our standard of calculation, in order to show that the present spinning power is fully adequate. to reduce the largest annual supply of cotton we have as yet received, into fine numbers of yarns, if required:

Table showing the annual deliveries of cotton to the trade of Great Britain, and

the number of spindles required to render such quantities into No. 40's mule twist:

Years.	Deliveries of Cotton—Lbs.	Spindles required.	Years.	Deliveries of Cotton—Lbs.	Spindles required.
1831	262,700,000	8,083,076	1841	438,100,000	13,480,000
1832	276,900,000	8,520,000	1842	435,100,000	13,387,692
1833	287,000,000	8,830,769	1843	517,800,000	15,932,307
1834	303,400,000	9,335,384	1844	544,000,000	16,738,460
1835	318,100,000	9,787,692	1845	606,600,000	18,664,614
1836	347,400,000	10,689,230	1846	614,300,000	18,901,537
1837	365,700,000	11,252,307	1847	441,400,000	13,581,537
1838	416,700,000	12,821,537	1848	576,600,000	17,741,537
1839	381,700,000	11,744,614	1849	629,900,000	19,381,537
1840	458,900,000	14,120,000	1850	584,200,000	17,975,384

6.—PROGRESS OF INDUSTRY IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

MANUFACTURES OF SHOES, LEATHER, BROOMS, IRON, &c.

The South Carolina papers teem with accounts of new industrial operations in their midst, showing that in all the storm of politics, the *practical* remedies for the South have not been for a moment forgotten. We are delighted to record this, and as a proof of our disinterested affection, will remark, that we get less support to our Review from there, than from almost any other Southern State. Single towns in Mississippi give us as much as our whole circulation in South Carolina, out of Charleston. Our attachments then, are at least *honest*, however at times we may suffer proscription for them.

1.—SOUTH CAROLINA SHOE MANUFACTORY.

We had the pleasure, but a short time since, of recording the determination of Messrs. Carew & Hopkins to enter upon the experiment of manufacturing shoes for plantation use, and their intention to erect, at once, suitable buildings for the purpose. Their factory has since been located at the corner of King and John streets, Charleston, near the rail-road depot, where they have commenced operations.

The proprietors have been fortunate in securing the superintendence of Mr. F. M. Bartlett, whose long connection with both the sale of the article in this city, and familiarity with the details of manufacturing as carried on in the largest establishments in the Union, renders the selection a very judicious one. The buildings on King-street are to be greatly improved and enlarged, with suitable offices and work-rooms attached. On John-street, a large and commodious building of 3½ stories, is in course of erection, 80 by 25 feet in dimensions, containing two extensive apartments on each floor, to be used for cutting-rooms. A large number of hands, among them some sixty or seventy boys and girls, are engaged in this operation; and arrangements are in progress for increasing the force employed in the establishment, on a scale commensurate with the extended accommodations for work-rooms, now nearly completed.

2.—THE CHERAW BROGAN AND LEATHER FACTORY.

We paid a visit a few days since, to the boot and shoe store of Mr. R. A. Pringle, on East Bay, and were very much pleased with the style and finish of a number of brogans made at this factory, which, for durability, we have no doubt will compete favorably with any received from abroad. Mr. Pringle has entered into a permanent arrangement with the proprietor, and is prepared to execute orders for these brogans, on favorable terms; and it is to be hoped that he will meet with the encouragement and support, that his efforts to foster and extend this branch of business in our state deserves.

This factory, originally started by Major Lazarus, passed into the hands of its present owner, Mr. F. Lynch, in the year 1845. The business, which has grown and extended with each year, enjoys at this time every prospect of permanent success. It is not limited to the manufacture of brogans only, but employs a fully organized tanning establishment, where the leather of which the shoes are made, is prepared from hides purchased in this state, and the state of North Carolina. To those who recollect the address pronounced before the South

Carolina Institute, at the period of its formation, by Mr. William Gregg, this plan will suggest itself as giving additional value to the produce of the factory. This gentleman stated, that leather manufactured in South Carolina and exported to the North, was there classed higher than their own, was used for purposes requiring the best material, and was generally retained for trade and consumption among themselves, so highly is it prized.

The proprietor of the Cheraw Factory, who is a native of our state, in company with the agent, visited the Northern and Eastern States about a year since, and observed with care and attention, recent improvements in similar enterprises there. In this way he has given to his previous experience new information and increased skill. To the tanning department, machinery and steam-power have been introduced, and in that and the brogan making, are employed a number of hands.

3.—CAROLINA BROOMS.

Specimens of these articles were exhibited at the last annual Fair of the Institute, from three manufactories in this state; one in Greenville, by Dr. J. Crittenden, one in Christ Church Parish, near the village of Mount Pleasant, by Henry S. Tew, Esq., and the other in St. Andrew's Parish, by J. H. Steinmeyer, Esq. For length and fineness of brush, and beauty, they were pronounced, by good judges, equal to any imported. Dr. C. planted last year 80 acres of broom-corn, with six hands, and expects to realize from 15 to 20 dozen of the manufactured brooms per acre. The hands engaged in winding, work with as much facility and skill as white hands at the North, engaged in the same business, some of them winding sixty brooms per day, which is there regarded as a good day's work. Mr. Tew proposes to plant this year, 300 acres, on good second swamp lands, the product of which he estimates at 500 pounds of brush and 30 bushels of seed to the acre, which will be worth not less than 40 to 50 dollars. Mr. Steinmeyer's lands in St. Andrew's, are cultivated by Mr. O. Moore, and are within a mile of the city. He is making arrangements for extending his crop and force, and has already succeeded in making a good yield, in brooms of all sizes and excellent quality. Specimens from his manufactory may be seen at Mr. N. M. Porter's store, in King, near Market-street, where a good supply is generally kept for sale.

The seed, when ground, makes good food for horses, hogs, sheep and poultry. The plant is a hardy one, enduring greater degrees of drought and moisture, and matured with less difficulty and trouble than the Indian corn. The climate and soil of this state are well adapted to its production. It is an article for which an immense amount of money has hitherto been drained out of the state, and the enterprising gentlemen who have taken the lead in cultivating it here at our own doors, deserve to be rewarded with at least a reasonable share of what will hereafter be expended for supplying our own market.

4.—SWEDISH IRON MANUFACTURING COMPANY.

An experiment was made in Washington some years ago, to test the strength of bar iron for chain cables, which resulted in a higher estimate being fixed upon the iron produced at the works owned by this company, than on the best Pennsylvania iron. The improvements introduced into the process of manufacture by the more experienced Swedes, who have taken hold of the enterprise, under very favorable auspices, are calculated to add materially to the purity and fine quality of the iron. It has been suggested by those capable of judging, that the finest steel may be manufactured from this iron, by establishing works for this purpose at a convenient distance for transportation, and within reach of a good supply of fuel and necessary materials.

These works are located in Spartanburg District, and have been for about a year past in possession of the present proprietors. The specimens of nails, nail-plate, bar iron and iron ore, which have been sent out from there, afford conclusive evidence that the company are engaged in a branch of industry which will yet prove a source of wealth and permanent advantage to our state.

7.—WILKINSON (MISS.) FACTORY.

This cotton factory is now in rapid progress. It is a building, says the Whig, of large and admirable design; there will be ample room in it to conquer much of the field's raw material, and weave it into fabrics for apparel. It is conveniently and healthfully situated, but little more than a mile from Woodville, and near the track of the rail-road. It will be interesting to many, to have given a few facts and figures as measure of the size of the factory, and the power of the machinery. The factory, proper, is a building of one hundred and ten feet in length, and fifty wide, with a tower in front as an entrance, and extending to the upper story; the building will be three stories high, with an altitude of twelve feet in the first story, and ten each for the two others, besides an attic of nine feet. This building has been progressed to the second story. There is also being erected a building for a picking and engine-house, fifty-two feet by forty-three, two stories high; the upper to be appropriated to machinery for the manufacture of woolen goods. The engine, now being built at Cincinnati, is of eighty-horse power, and is said to be a machine after the manner of the highest and most approved modern improvements, and will be executed in finished workmanship. It will run eighty looms, and three thousand two hundred spindles.

There is to be built a warehouse for an office, and the storing of manufactured goods. There is now, nearly completed, three buildings, with twelve tenements for families, each containing several well proportioned rooms. Also, a large boarding-house, to be eighty feet by forty. A neat brick cottage is to be erected, as the residence of the superintendent.

8.—VAN BUREN (ARKANSAS) COTTON AND WOOLEN FACTORY.

We understand that the stockholders of the Van Buren Manufactory, have organized, by the election of the following officers, viz.:

John Henry, President; Alfred Wallace, Treasurer; Directors: Wm. Bradley, Jesse Turner, John B. Ogden, E. B. Bishop, James A. Warren.

The capital stock of this company is $50,000, taken in shares of $100 each. The machinery is to be driven by two steam-engines. We learn, that it is contemplated to put in looms sufficient to manufacture from 500 to 600 bales of domestics and Georgia stripes per annum. The merchants of Arkansas who study their interest, will therefore look, in the future, to this source, for their supplies. We calculate with confidence, on the results of this factory arousing a spirit of manufacturing enterprise throughout the state.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1.—CONSUMPTION OF SUGAR IN THE UNITED STATES AND EUROPE, ETC.

In a late number of the Cincinnati Prices Current, we find the following calculations in regard to Sugar, founded upon the statements of a New-York house:

SUGAR.—"The production of this article of prime necessity, in the United States, is annually increasing. The whole annual production of the world is estimated at 1,471,000,000 pounds; of which the United States produces 320,000,000, including 76,000,000 of Maple Sugar. The production of this large amount of Maple Sugar will strike some of our sugar planters with astonishment. Of the whole amount of sugar produced, Europe consumes about one thousand millions, divided as follows: Great Britain, 386,866,800: France, 160,080,000; Belgium, 19,840,000; Netherlands, 42,000,000; Russia, 70,000,000; Denmark and Sweden, 22,000,000; the German Zoll-Verein, 101,300,000; other parts of Germany, 160,000,000; Austria, 50,000,000."

Consumption of Sugar in the United States for the year 1849.

Stock of sugar on hand at New-York 1st January, ...tons		5,100	
Stock in other Atlantic ports, estimated		1,900	
			7,000
Crop of Louisiana which came to market 1849.....lbs.		242,000,000 or	108,000
Import of Foreign Sugar for the year ending 31st January, 1849, brown		253,815,485	
White, clayed, powdered		5,103,741	
		258,919,226	
Less exported, including Canada—brown, white, clarified, powdered, and refined, manufacture of United States		11,995,222	
		238,924,004	106,500
			221,500
Stock in New-York 1st January, 1850, 3,113 hhds., 1,679 boxes, 23,866 bags; or tons		3,200	
Stock in other Atlantic ports, estimated		1,300	
			4,500
Consumption, tons			217,000

	Imports of Foreign Sugar. lbs.	Exports of Sugar. lbs.
1847—		
Brown	194,704,563	19,735,471
White, clayed, etc.	8,563,168	312,346
Refined	—	1,924,269
	203,267,731	21,972,086
1848—		
Brown	248,201,117	11,749,135
White, clayed, etc.	6,807,008	1,063,161
Befined	—	4,233,466
	225,008,125	17,035,762

Estimated Consumption of Sugar in the United States for the year 1851.

Stock on hand in New-York 1st January, tons			3,200
Other Atlantic ports			1,300
			4,500
		hhds.	lbs.
Crop of Louisiana, which came to market, 1850		247,000	271,000,000
Import of Foreign Sugar, for the year ending June 30, 1849, was			258,919,226
The Imports of Foreign, for the first ten months of this year, into this port, show an increase of upwards of 6,000 tons over the corresponding time of last year, or near 11 per cent. We therefore deem it safe to assume that the total increase at the end of the year will be 8 per cent. in the aggregate of last year, say			20,713,538
			279,622,764
Less Exported, brown		5,050,481	
" Refined, equal to		2,446,119	8,306,600
			271,236,164
		or tons	246,000
Assuming the stock at the end of the year to be the same as on the 1st Nov., 7,300 hhds. and 3,900 bxs. or tons.		5,000	
Other Atlantic ports		2,000	7,000
Consumption, tons			239,000

In neither of the foregoing estimates have we included the consumption of sugar made from molasses and the maple tree, or the import of foreign crushed; as to the first two there are no certain data on which to form an estimate. We think, however, the quantity has been about the same in each year. Last year there was no import of foreign crushed of moment.

SUGAR TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN, 1850.

As regards the year 1850, the prominent points requiring to be noticed are, first, the great decrease in the importations, as compared with those in the previous year; thus, we imported into the United Kingdom—

In 1849	tons	317,000
1850	"	285,500
Deficiency	tons	31,500

Secondly, the increase in the home consumption, which was

In 1849	tons	269,000
1850	"	276,600
Increase	tons	7,600

Thirdly, the decrease in the exports, which were

In 1849	tons	29,600
1850	"	22,200
Decrease	tons	7,400

Fourthly, the decrease in the stocks, which were on the 31st December,

1849	tons	123,800
1850	"	93,300
Decrease	tons	30,500

2.—MELSENS' PROCESS OF SUGAR MANUFACTURE.

A late number of Le Patrie, an influential journal of Paris, has an article on the sugar making process of Melsens, which has hitherto attracted a good deal of attention in this country. Le Patrie says:

It will be remembered that the first announcement of the discovery of the Melsens process, about a year ago, created much sensation. Some desired, others feared, that it would cause a complete revolution in the sugar making business. If we remember aright, this announcement was not altogether without influence in retarding the presentation to the Assemblée Nationale of the project of a law on sugar, by which delay the sugar trade and sugar making business received much injury.

The success of the Melsens process was desirable, for the reason, that every step made in advance in industry always produces a greater sum of advantages than disadvantages.

The Melsens process has been officially experimented on in the island of Guadaloupe; and a commission, appointed by the government of that colony, has reported against its use.

It appears from the commissioners' report, that the bi-sulphate of lime, on which is based the Melsens process, has not in actual use the same results as were observable in the chemist's laboratory. The decolorizing power or property is destroyed by the necessity under which the sugar maker finds himself of using either very small charges of the bi-sulphate or very large ones of the lime. In the second place, the proportion between the amount of sugar made and molasses or syrup obtained from the same quantity of cane-juice, is not so profitable as that generally obtained from other processes by the planters of Guadaloupe.

These experiments, it is true, have proved that the bi-sulphate of lime possesses the property of diminishing the fermentation of cane-juice; but it is well

known that the same result can be obtained by promptly heating the juice to a temperature of 122 to 140 degrees Fahrenheit, and charging it properly with lime.

3.—AN ESTIMATE OF THE COTTON CROP.

Below I hand you estimates of the Cotton crop—if it be wrong in any part, I wish to have the error pointed out, and some good reason given to show that it is an error. In many instances, I think, the figures are too high, and think I venture little in asserting that I can show more clearly, that some estimates are too low, than any person can show that any one of the estimates is too high. If these estimates are anywhere near correct, is it not manifest that some very extraordinary causes are, and have been, at work, producing the present depressed prices? I ask all parties interested in the great staple of the South, to inquire into this matter—if there are errors in the estimate, point them out; and if there are "extraordinary causes" at work, point them out, too. My object is to arrive at the truth—the whole truth—and nothing but the truth.

Estimate of the Cotton Crop of 1850–51.—*March* 8, 1851.

Received at all the ports to date, as per Price Current			1,693,185
Received, and now at interior towns, viz.:			
Augusta and Hamburg, Feb. 1, 1851		65,558	
Columbus, Ga., " 22, "		17,741	
Macon, Ga., March 4, "		17,780	
Montgomery, Ala., 1, "		16,750	
Memphis, Tenn., Feb. 18, "		20,000	
Columbia, S. C., 1, "		5,000	142,838
Total received, and on hand			1,836,023
Estimated amount to come from sundry places:			
Yazoo River and tributaries		20,000	
Vicinity of Memphis and Hatchie River		15,000	
Tennessee River and Nashville		40,000	
Arkansas and White Rivers		4,000	
Red and Ouachita Rivers		15,000	
Scattering, from Mississippi River		15,000	
Texas		20,000	
Tombigbee, Warrior and Alabama Rivers		40,000	
Interior of Georgia		50,000	
Interior of South Carolina		50,000	
Florida		40,000	309,000
Estimate of whole of 1850–51			2,145,023
But there is to be deducted from this amount, Cotton to be brought at Memphis for manufactories at the West—Pittsburg, Wheeling, Wellsburg, and Cannelton		25,000	
Deduct 5 per cent. for short weight		106,000	
Deduct for trash, notes and unmerchantable Cotton		20,000	151,000
Leaving for the crop only			1,994,023

4.—VARIETIES OF COTTON SEED.

I have been selecting from the field every year, for the past five years. I begin after the first picking. Usually we begin to gather cotton about the 15th of August, and can run over the crop in about two weeks; thus I begin to select about the 1st of September. I have done it myself, and always notice the negroes when they are put at it. We gather the full open bolls, from the best stalks—noticing particularly the fullest and thriftiest stalks—preferring the bolls about the centre of that stalk, and near the body, and do not save the

bolls from ends, or near the ends of limbs. This cotton is carefully sunned, and put by itself—room enough allowed so as not to be pressed together. This cotton is usually the last ginned, and, if not exceedingly careless, there cannot be a faulty seed.

I have selected "*Sugar Beet*" thus for five years, and I am quite sure, upon my rich, fresh land, it not only produces more, but matures earlier than any variety I have yet tried.

"*Brown Seed*" has been tried here three years; the first two lots of seed were either not genuine, or I had the wrong land appropriated. This year this cotton was on better land, and I was so well pleased as to select from it. Many planters in this county pronounce it better than any other.

Vick's "100 *Seed*" is the very best Mexican, or Petit Gulf, now in this state, I firmly believe. Col. H. W. Vick has devoted some ten years to selecting and experimenting with this cotton, and the "100 Seed" is the result. Upon rich land it is not to be excelled much by the above. This year upon part of my land it did not do as well as in former years; yet upon another field it was better than ever

The "*Hogan*" does better on thin land than either of the above, or Mexican; and this is said of it by many others. Pruet, Cluster, Multiflora, Manybush, &c. &c., are the same, only in different degrees of purity. Pruet, Cluster and Hogan, are here generally identical.

The "*Banana*" is preferable to either, there being more care taken in the purity, as well as a fresher article from the original stock. Of this, I have none now for sale, but can buy them of Col. Hebron, at $2 50. And I am informed that Gen. G. D. Mitchell has some 1,000 bushels of the same, in South Carolina, from Mr. David Gibson, of Warren county.

The "*Pomegranate*," is the name of the seed sold by Gen. G. D. Mitchell, and the cotton I saw at his place. The growth of this, Banana, Hogan, &c., are identical; so much so, that I insisted upon it to Gen. M. that it was the same, only much purer. Since seeing his cotton, and writing for the Southern Cultivator my opinion of it, I have further examined other cotton, and having learned that Gen. M. bought of Mr. Gibson 350 bushels last year, and sold them in Mobile, I am inclined to think the Pomegranate cotton is Banana seed grown on very poor land, suited to short-jointed cotton. If this is really a selection of Gen. Mitchell's, I have never planted any of it.

"*Silk*" I planted this year, upon old, poor, new and good land, giving it a fair trial; and, under all circumstances, I find it good. This has been known several years in this county, but I never tried it until this year.

"*Jethro*" I have not for sale—it is yet in too small a quantity to permit my selling it at any fixed price. I gave a few away last year, and the grower certifies to me that 304 lbs. gave 106 pounds of lint, he carefully weighing it himself. I am inclined to think this variety will excel any yet tried for its quality. I learn the South Carolina Mechanics' Institute selected this variety for the World's Fair. I will have it for sale this fall.

I charge $5 per sack of 125 lbs., (I rate them at 25 lbs. per bushel,) for any seed I sell—unless some one wants a few of yearly selection; and I object to sell them at any price, and place $5 per bushel on them to avoid selling. I cannot spare the time to cull many seed, and if a full crop, would not do it at even $5, unless enough could be sold to make it an object.

Yours, &c., M. W. PHILIPS.

5.—COTTON, AND ITS COST OF PRODUCTION.

The annexed contribution was received from a practical Cotton planter in Louisiana, and though we think there are exceptions which may be taken to its *Cotton calculations*, we believe they yet do not vary very widely from the fact. We differ from the author in regard to his estimate of the products of labor at the South, the last ten years, and believe that, although prices have been very low, we have been very far from actual *ruin*, and could not at all be compared with the operatives of Europe. The paragraph in which he takes this view we prefer to

omit. In other respects the article is deserving of attention; and the reader will find that in vols. vii. and viii. of the Review, we have presented detailed statements of the cost of production in other states, and from different sources. The matter should receive a more full investigation. Our own opinion is clear, that the average of prices in the future, for many years to come, will not vary much from their present maximum.

It has often been observed that many, everywhere, both in Europe and America, have been ready at all times to raise the hue and cry about the high prices of cotton, whenever it bears a value at all *remunerating*, and when it becomes so low as to sink beneath the cost of production, to be ready to congratulate its growers upon the profits they are realizing.

We imagine two prominent reasons may be found sufficiently explanatory of this, and the first is *interest*. This article constitutes the *chief element* of clothing for the whole civilized world, and its cheapness and abundance is as necessary to the millions that consume it, as their bread. The second reason for this general warfare against the planting interest, is, that most of those who have never produced the great staple, which clothes the world at so much less cost than any other good material, is, that they are not familiar with the costs of its production, and generally greatly underrate them.

Having so often observed the erroneous conclusions into which individuals and *communities* have been led, for the want of this knowledge and experience, we propose here to give a short and accurate summary of the *expenses and costs* of producing cotton, as deduced from our experience and observation for fifteen years. When we say *accurate*, we do not mean that standard that a merchant or mathematician observes, but *near enough* to show what is necessary; at least we will not make them greater than they are.

Take a plantation well-improved and properly organized, with good buildings, gins, mill, teams, &c., on which there are one hundred slaves, old and young negroes. Let this be cultivated, *free of rent or hire*, for one year, or a series of years, and left in as good order as it was received; it is a fair calculation that such places, upon rich bottom land, will produce annually seven bales, weighing four hundred pounds, to each hand; but not near so much on "up-lands." On such a plantation, with one hundred slaves, there would generally be found about fifty classified, *average* field-hands—the whole property being worth about *one hundred thousand dollars*.

Thus 50 hands will produce 350 bales, of 400 lbs.; this sold at 5 cents per lb., will be twenty dollars per bale—350 bales....		$7,000
From which deduct, for sending to market and selling, $2 50 per bale—350 bales.....	$875 00	
To feed 100 servants, to furnish the hospital, overseer's table, &c..	750 00	
Deduct bagging and rope per bale—350 bales.....	525 00	
To clothe 100 slaves, shoe them, furnish bedding, sacks for gathering cotton, &c.....	750 00	
Wages to competent overseer.....	700 00	
Such plantation requiring 35 or 40 mules, will need an annual addition of about four or five to sustain the teams.....	400 00	
Annual outlay to keep up farming tools of all descriptions, in wood and iron.....	250 00	
Taxes on the whole estate.....	300 00	
Medicines, doctors' bills, &c.....	250 00	
Annual repairs of gins, mill, press, and purchasing new stands, &c.....	250 00	
Annual outlay for materials to keep in repair all the buildings needed; for nails, lime, plank, and such materials as cannot be had on the place.....	200 00	
Total Expenses above named.....		$5,250
Leaves.....		$1,750

It is to be borne in mind that there are hundreds of *small matters* not enumerated here, which must be annually purchased, and added to the list of expenses; also that nothing has been allowed for the support of the planter and his family, which should all be charged to the place, as his *supervision is indispensable*. Nor has anything been set down to meet those contingent and incidental losses and costs, to which all such estates are liable. As the loss of servants from epidemics, the loss of *whole teams* from diseases, the frequent accidents to gins and houses from fire, losses from overflows, breaking of levees, &c.; the cost of making *entirely new* all the buildings, gins, &c., on the premises, occur every 15 or 20 years. If a reasonable charge is made for these things, it will be readily seen the balance of $1,750 will fail to meet them. Thus it appears that it will cost five cents to produce cotton, and if the land is given, clear of rent, and the labor without hire, a judicious economy only could save the manager of such an estate from debt, if he be required to surrender the property to the owner at the end of the year in good condition.

Nearly half the time, in the last ten years, cotton has been sold for the planters on the *low* lands, for about five cents per lb., which the most superficial observer must see has been ruinous; for it would appear those immense estates not only pay no *interest* on the large investments, at those rates, but scarcely do the revenues support the charges of cultivating and sustaining them. It would require an extraordinary coincidence of favorable circumstances, to leave the smallest margin of profit to the planters. Their profits begin only when cotton advances above five cents, or the crop reaches beyond the ordinary average of seven bales to the hand; the latter no one ought to presume on, for he will as often fall below as rise above the average.

We dislike, for those who are utterly unacquainted with the details of its production, to be constantly laboring to produce wrong impressions in the commercial circles, both in Europe and America, and stimulating, under false views, individuals and *nations* to embark in a business, ruinous to themselves and to those already engaged in it. Why should our material be said to be too high, when no other can be found to clothe the world half so cheap, combining the same comfort and utility? Why do people complain of the high price of cotton, when even at ten cents it will clothe them cheaper and better than anything else by half—and yet only leave 25 or 30 cents per day compensation to the producer of the raw material?

From such calculations as these it might be easy to show, that all the efforts England is making to succeed in the cultivation of cotton must prove abortive: for her labor is greatly inferior to ours. Her lands and climate have been found to be still more so. (The writer is personally acquainted with some of the planters employed from this country by the English, to try the experiment in India.) The distance from the places of consumption is another impediment to their success; as also, the marked inferiority of the staple. The West Indies, South America, and Egypt, have all failed in the race of competition against us, and have been yearly sinking lower in the amount of product.

Still another reason will forever effectually hinder England from successful competition. We are compelled to employ our labor in the production of this staple, let the price be what it may. We have the labor amongst us; labor of an excellent and superior quality. There is a vast field opened to it. Climate and soil happily adapted to the nature and constitution of the laborer, and to the production of the staple. We may say *peculiarly* to it, for there has not yet been found any other staple to employ so many laborers. Nor do we despair of obtaining remunerating prices, though England may try her India experiments; though manufacturers, merchants and brokers, and every element of selfishness and cupidity may conspire against us; for the world must be clad, and we can do it *cheaper* and *better* than any other people.

Nor do the ravings of abolitionists and pseudo-philanthropists disturb our repose. We well know our domestic institutions will remain as they are, and that we will forever enjoy the advantages of our labor, until *we choose* to dispense with it. We well know that the difficulties in the way of freeing this country of its negro population are insurmountable, and the cost of doing it, even if no compensation was claimed by their owners, would be so enormous, that noisy philanthropists would be the last to advocate the policy.

A national debt of one thousand millions of dollars would be required to *prepare* five millions of our Africans for freedom, in an independent government; to transport them there, and defray their expenses for a season. We cannot but look with confident hope to the future, not only that our domestic institutions will endure, and our labor remain to us, but that it will be hereafter profitable. An article that clothes nine-tenths of the civilized world at such cheap rates, and the laborers who produce it, must be regarded with interest. Destroy either the *material* or the *labor*, and what is the condition of the hundreds of millions of human beings they clothe? What the condition of the millions of poor laborers they give employment to, and supply with daily bread? What becomes of the commerce of the world, that great chain which binds the families of the earth to each other? One general ruin would overwhelm society. Revolutions in trade and society, and with it revolutions in governments, would be unavoidable. If we look for the cause of the extraordinary peace of the world for the last half century, *commerce* solves the mystery. If we ask what gave the impulse to commerce, we answer, *chiefly cotton, and its manufactures.* And how such immense quantities of this has been produced at such cheap rates as to enable the peasantry of Europe, who once were ragged, not only to be clad from it, but to be fed by their labor in elaborating it into materials for the rest of mankind,—we answer, by the introduction of Africans into these states: whilst they themselves have been brought up from the depths of ignorance and degradation in which they had been buried for centuries, to a state of comparative civilization and happiness, each generation gradually advancing higher and higher. These are some of the advantages, aided by the skill and capital of the Americans, they have conferred upon mankind. At some future day it may be their destiny to be separated from the patriarchal jurisdiction of those who had been so long their instructors and protectors, when they may be prepared for liberty and self-government.

It seems as if the hand of mercy had conducted them to this land, and placed them in the only possible condition where their moral and intellectual natures could be improved and cultivated. So deep had they been buried in ignorance and degradation, that they could not have mingled with the refined society of European nations, or their descendants, as *equals.* The relation of *master* and *slave*, as it exists here in its *patriarchal character*, is the only conceivable one which could elevate the Africans in the scale of intelligence and morality, while at the same time it has been the means of giving commerce and peace to the world.

Lake Providence, La. A PLANTER.

DEPARTMENT OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1.—KENTUCKY.

A bill has been introduced into the legislature of the state, granting the following sums: Kentucky River Improvement, $200,000; to the unfinished roads, $300,000; to the rail-road from Louisville towards Tennessee, in the direction of Nashville, $500,000; to a rail-road from Lexington, in the direction of the Virginia line, $500,000; to a rail-road from the Louisville and Frankfort rail-road, in the direction of the Cumberland Gap, $200,000; to Licking River, $100,000.

The County Court of Mason have subscribed $150,000 to the Maysville and Lexington rail-road. The city subscription is the same as that of the county, making $300,000 together. Besides this, considerably upwards of $100,000 have been subscribed by private citizens; and still subscriptions are going on. There is a lively competition in subscriptions on the rival routes through the county; and we anticipate an aggregate of $500,000 towards the rail-road in all of Mason county.

It is calculated the following sums will be subscribed in aid of the Louisville and Nashville Rail-road:—Nelson County, $230,000; Larue, $50,000; Hart, $100,000; Barren, $250,000; Allen, $100,000; Sumner, $300,000; Nashville, $500,000, and Louisville, $1,000,000, making an aggregate of $2,550,000—which is $50,000 more than Mr. Stevenson, the President of the Nashville and Chattanooga Road, says will complete the work. Meetings along the line

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... *Rail-road Company has been organ-*
...zette says: As the line is a short
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...ed, in order that all interested may be
... the work, its length, route, probable

... a system, which will not only give a
... western portions of our state by rail-road,
... road a direct connection with the line,
... of East Tennessee and Virginia, (and
... time with them,) will now be fairly set
... such an interest awakened as will carry
... system of rail-roads, to a completion
...ments.

... CAROLINA.

... bill has passed the Legislature, providing,
... expended $400,000, they shall be released from

... Report, 1851, of the *Wilmington & Man-*
... road completes the link of rail-way travel to
... for the hazardous sea-voyage between Wil-
... Carolina appropriated $200,000 by act of
... ington has been permitted by the legislature
... 6 per cent. bonds at 15 and 20 years. The
... Nearly 80 miles of grading have been finish-
... ing delivered, and the iron for 37½ miles will
... st. Total estimated cost of road, $1,550,000.
... per mile. Mr. Harlee, the President of the
... ports in Georgetown, it appears that during the
... shipped from that port, and from the census of
... ed, it appears that 18,000 400-lb. bales of cotton
... the year 1849. This makes, in the aggregate,
... year 1849, produced in a region tributary to our
... ear mainly dependent on it for a market. The
... is believed, exhibit fully as great an increase in

... the road, we have the following from Mr. Flem-
... ountry through which your road passes, contains
... ctions are more varied and valuable, and conse-
... of transportation than those transported on the
... Rail-road.
... incontrovertible fact, that the local business of your
... through passengers and mail will yield the same
... ton and Raleigh Rail-road.
... basis, and without taking into consideration the
... inevitably result from a rail-way connection, (thus
... yage) and the greater number of persons who will be
... avenues of communication are multiplied, the speed
... and allowing the expenses to be one-half of the
... a dividend of seven per cent. on the cost of the
... annually of $26,882 to be carried to a sinking fund for
... ishment of the debt.

4.—GEORGIA.

... *Point Rail-Road* is progressing very rapidly. The iron is
... of road upon the Atlanta portion of the line. The rail-
... ward, is now completed to within about three miles of

West Point, and will in a short time be in complete running order to that place. In the meantime, the Atlanta and West Point road will be pushed forward towards its ultimate terminus with all possible despatch.

5.—ALABAMA.

Selma and Union Town Rail-Road.—At a meeting of the board of directors, together with the stockholders generally, of the Alabama and Mississippi Rail-Road Company, held in Union Town, on Saturday, the 8th of February, 1851, Jas. L. Price was elected President of the said road; A. P. Walke, Secretary, and Wm. T. Moore, Treasurer.

At the same meeting, an executive committee was appointed, consisting of R. H. Adams, J. R. John, and Col. John H. Davidson.

This road, we learn by the *Selma Enterprise*, will be in length 33 to 35 miles, and cost $350,000. The object is to connect the planters of the cane-brake with the Alabama and Tennessee River Road, and ultimately with the Mobile and Ohio road at the Mississippi line. 40,000 bales of cotton will take this road.

Alabama and Tennessee Rail-Road.—We learn that the chief engineer of this road, Mr. Troost, on his recent visit north, purchased 5,500 tons of iron, sufficient to complete the road to Montevallo, a distance of 57 miles. The road-bed up to this point will be in readiness to receive the iron as soon as it is shipped from England.

The great object of this company is to build their road to Rome, Geo., at which place a junction will be formed with the Georgia Rail-road, and by means of this with all the roads of the country. The distance from Selma to Rome is about 180 miles. This, the company propose to finish in sections, of about 45 miles each year. We presume that they will find no difficulty in doing this. The route is a good one: the county traversed is one of the best in the South, the means of the people ample, and the best feeling prevails in reference to this work.

After the completion of the road to Rome, the company will then, we presume, construct a track to Gunter's Landing on the Tennessee River, and thence to the Memphis and Charleston road, for the purpose of opening a communication in a north-westerly direction. When this shall be formed, as well as the one to Rome, the above road will not only be one of the most, if not the most important in Alabama, but will always occupy a conspicuous position among the rail-roads of the United States.—*Rail-Road Journal.*

6.—MISSISSIPPI.

Vicksburg and Selma Rail-Road.—To J. D. B. De Bow, Esq.—Sir:—Various articles have appeared in your valuable journal, on the subject of a rail-road connection between the interior and the city of New-Orleans. Whether by design, or not, I cannot say, but there appears to be with the writers a settled purpose to overlook the route leading east from Vicksburg to Selma, Alabama, and from that point to Montgomery and Chattanooga—at both points uniting with the web of roads diverging from Savannah, Charleston and Nashville—pouring into New-Orleans the diversified products of the richest portions of Alabama, Mississippi and Tennessee, and developing the inexhaustible resources of a portion of the South, which have heretofore had no reliable access to a market. This line of road is now in successful operation from Vicksburg to Brandon, a distance of sixty miles, and the route from Selma to Gunter's Landing will be in operation for thirty miles, in a few months—both works being in an active state of progress; and every mile of the first-mentioned work, extended east, adds largely to the business of New-Orleans, diverting the entire trade from the prairie counties in Mississippi, and part of the cane-lands in Alabama.

For the completion of this road to the Alabama line, a distance of about eighty-six miles, the Legislature of Mississippi offers a bonus of $300,000, or nearly equal to one-fourth the cost of the entire road—this property consisting of fourteen miles of good rail-road and equipments, and sixty-six valuable slaves. The country through which this road passes, affords facilities for building a road unequalled, probably, in the United States, it being estimated to cost, to lay the track complete, $10,000 per mile. In a communication of this kind, I cannot conveniently furnish tables of the products of the counties on the line, (which I may do in some future communication) but by taking an air-line from Vicksburg to Selma, and

[illegible] on the Tennessee River, and supposing that this road [illegible] for 100 miles north and south of the line, it will be per- [illegible] will at once do an immense business—passing through the [illegible] the South, and through the inexhaustible mines of coal and [illegible] of Tuscaloosa. In this enterprise, every dollar of capital in- [illegible] yield an interest, and the extent to which dividends may be [illegible] route, is equal to that of any road. In addition to the above bonus, [illegible] land will be made by Congress.

[illegible] a capital bearing no comparison with that of New-Orleans, will have [illegible] August, thirty-three miles of the Mobile and Ohio Rail-road, and [illegible] capital necessary to complete one hundred and twenty miles, reaching [illegible] country, and drawing off the trade, which, by the above route, would [illegible] New-Orleans. But it may be idle to mention this subject to New-Orleans [illegible]—nature has given them a great highway, and no exertion, on their part [illegible] necessary. Look to your census report! Look to your port statistics! Already [illegible] Eastern cities are absorbing a large share of the Western trade. Savannah [illegible] Charleston are already offering the advantages of cheap transportation, cheap [illegible] and speedy transit to the consumer, over long trips, heavy insurance, [illegible] the beauties of the list-system.

[illegible] your citizens will not voluntarily subscribe to works of vital importance, let [illegible] be imposed, and for every dollar of tax paid, hundreds will be added to your city.

Upon commencing this letter, I intended to notice an article in your number of February, 1851, which is highly commended, but many positions and suggestions in it convince me that the author must have prepared his paper upon lines drawn on a map, and gave no attention to the character of the country, including surface, soil, and products. He locates one of his *basins* at Natchez, and proposes running a road to Little Rock, Arkansas. *Cui bono*—is it for trade or travel? One-half the route is through a swamp—nine-tenths of which is overflowed every year. The other, over the roughest mountain country. One-half running, I presume, on or near the land of the Mississippi—the other, through mountains with no inhabitants.

If the road was completed, there would be nobody to go and nothing to send; and about the same state of affairs exist as to the Jackson and New-Orleans Rail-Road, unless friend Tarpley's trade in chickens and pine-knots should yield a dividend. New-Orleans would do well to get to the starting-point, and then press forward; but if she takes hold of this route, she adds nothing to her trade, and exhausts, in a useless enterprise, the liberality of her citizens. Every bale of cotton raised between Jackson and New-Orleans now goes to the latter city. Every mile of road built east of Brandon, adds to its trade. If you doubt this, place the map before you, and examine for yourself.

In some future number I will go more into detail, and prove two points by tabular, official statements, viz.: That it is the interest of New-Orleans to aid the Eastern road, and that good dividends will be earned by the company. W. M. H.

7.—SOUTH CAROLINA.

The Greenville Rail-Road Company.—We have just had a conversation with Mr. McBee, one of our Directors, who has returned from a meeting of the Board at Newberry. He brings the most cheering account as to the success and prosperous condition of the Greenville and Columbia Rail-Road Company. The road is completed from Columbia to within one mile of Newberry Court-House. The receipts of the road, during the month of January, clear of all expenses, amounted to [illegible] thousand dollars. The profits of February were not known, but doubtless [illegible]. We are happy to learn that there will be no delay in constructing the [illegible] above Newberry village. The work goes rapidly on, and the bridge across the Saluda is under contract. The entire grading, from Anderson Court-House to [illegible], is almost completed. A heavier iron has been purchased for the road [illegible] Abbeville, which will enable the company to dispense with some of the [illegible] otherwise necessary for the road. There has been some difficulty in getting the contracts for furnishing the timber taken in Abbeville, and a portion of [illegible]

[illegible] news, however, in regard to the rail-road, is, that the company have

made their estimates, and find that they have $125,000 more than enough to complete the entire road to Greenville Court-House! This calculation, too, does not include the profits of the road, whilst being constructed, and which will be very considerable. The circuit which the road makes through Abbeville, will add hundreds of thousands of dollars to its profits. It is a rich country, and their produce otherwise would not have passed over the road.

The Laurens Rail-Road is also progressing rapidly, and they are moving on with their rail-road projects in Union, Spartanburg and York.

8.—MARYLAND.

The Baltimore and Ohio Rail-Road is destined, probably, to become the most important line in the country. Charters, right of way, &c., have been obtained, as we learn from the Cincinnati Gazette, connecting, when completed, the city of Baltimore with the mouth of the Kansas River, in Missouri, a distance of 1,407 miles. There are six distinct sections, viz.:

Ohio and Baltimore Rail-Road to Tygart's Valley	237	miles.
Tygart's Valley to the Ohio	80	"
Ohio River to Cincinnati	185	"
Cincinnati to Vincennes	330	"
Vincennes to St. Louis	145	"
St. Louis to the mouth of Kansas	380	"

Most of these sections have been surveyed; that from St. Louis to the mouth of the Kansas has been assisted by the state credit to the amount of *a million and a half of dollars*, and the only doubt expressed as to the rapid completion of the work, is, as to that portion east of Parkersburg, in Virginia. The greatest obstacle on the line is the passage of the Alleghany Mountains, in Virginia. The Ohio and Baltimore Company are now constructing a tunnel through this mountain, which will be 4,000 feet in length. On this long line there is not a difference of level of more than 300 feet, and at no two points does it vary from a straight line over sixty miles. It is looked upon as one of the greatest, most important, and relatively the cheapest rail-road in the world. The entire cost is estimated at $30,000,000—not over *one-fifth* of what it would cost in Europe, and not *half* what it would cost in New-England. What a step such a road will prove on the great line from the Atlantic to the Pacific! These gigantic undertakings admonish us of the necessity of pushing our roads to a rapid completion.

9.—TEXAS.

Rail-Road from the Gulf of Mexico to the Upper Rio Grande.—The Houston *Telegraph*, speaking of Col. Johnson's survey of the Brazos and Trinity rivers, under the authority of the general government, makes the following remarks in relation to the project of a rail-road from the Mexican Gulf to the Upper Rio Grande:

"Col. Johnson has recently examined the route from Lavaca Bay to El Paso, for the purpose of ascertaining the practicability of constructing a rail-road to connect that Bay with the upper valley of the Rio Grande. The new survey now contemplated will, in all probability, show the comparative advantages of a rail-road extending from Galveston Bay to the valley of the Upper Rio Grande and the Gila. The people of Missouri are making great exertions to obtain the aid of government for the construction of a rail-road to connect St. Louis with the valleys of Columbia and Sacramento. The people of Texas should be equally on the alert to secure similar advantages to this section, by the construction of a rail-road connecting the principal harbor of the state with the valley of San Joaquin and Colorado of the West. The surveys of Col. Johnson, when completed, will embrace the topography of the whole region of Texas, from Galveston and Lavaca Bay to El Paso, and the surveys of the boundary commission will embrace the topography of the country between El Paso and the point where the southern line of California touches the coast of the Pacific. We are confident that these surveys, when completed, will show that the southern route for a rail-road connecting the Gulf of Mexico with the Gulf of California—extending from Galveston, or Lavaca Bay, by El Paso or Donna Aña, is far preferable to the northern route through Missouri. It is shorter, and the country is so uniform, rising by regular gradations from the Gulf on the east, to the summit of the table lands of the Gila, and declining by

[illegible] to the Pacific Coast, that the cost of constructing a rail-[illegible] probably, scarcely amount to two-thirds of the cost on the [illegible] rail-road should be constructed, and having its eastern [illegible] what a wonderful city would spring upon its site! This [illegible] ancient Tyre, would extend her commerce from Ocean to [illegible] the queen city of the ancients in commercial importance, [illegible] advantages of rail-roads excel the limited facilities of transpor-[illegible] the caravans of the ancients to connect the commerce of India [illegible] the Mediterranean."

10.—LOUISIANA.

[illegible] in our next the proceedings of the Rail-Road Convention held in [illegible] April, for the purpose of promoting the *Jackson Rail-Road* enter-[illegible] also publish any movements that may be made in the proposed [illegible] *to Opelousas*, via the Parish of St. Mary, etc. Mr. Payne has [illegible] to communicate with the planters of Attakapas, to discover how [illegible] contribute towards the construction of the road. We mentioned in [illegible] they had offered a bonus of $100.000 to whoever would build the [illegible] Point Coupee to Opelousas, about 35 miles; but the route at present [illegible] from New-Orleans will be 170 or 180 miles.

[illegible] general council of New-Orleans have under consideration a resolution [illegible] adopted in public meeting, providing for the meeting next winter [illegible] of a *Southern and Western Rail-Road Convention*, embracing all the [illegible] from Virginia to the Gulf, and from Texas to Missouri. If this measure can [illegible] carried out, it will greatly tend to the advancement of our rail-road enterprises, [illegible] very much to allay any jealousies that may at present exist. We shall re-[illegible] this frequently hereafter.

About $100.000 was taken the other day in New-Orleans in the stock of the *Memphis and Chattanooga Rail-Road*, and about $200,000 in the *Mobile and Girard* [illegible] The commissioners of the *Selma Road* came in very bad season to do any [illegible] though they made an impression which will be felt hereafter.

[illegible] a strong and lengthy article upon this road, founded upon the surveys of Mr. [illegible] see our number for August, 1850, pp. 218, 223. We shall refer to it again [illegible] hope to publish a large and splendid rail-road map, showing all of the [illegible] the southern and western states, in operation, or in projection, to date.

[illegible] know a single individual who will take $50,000 in the Jackson Road, if the [illegible] municipalities of New-Orleans are consolidated into one city—a consumma-[illegible] most devoutly prayed! The *Tehuantepec Treaty* being ratified by our govern-[illegible] has gone back to Mexico for final action. Mr. Benjamin seems quite san-[illegible] of the result. The explorations are being conducted with spirit.

[illegible] ATLANTIC RAIL-ROAD INFLUENCE UPON NEW-ORLEANS TRADE.

[illegible] what is it to New-Orleans, whether Nashville and Louisville con-[illegible] themselves by Rail-road with Charleston? Much in every way, but in the [illegible] to which she is perhaps most sensible, very much. In 1849, the cars of the [illegible] and Atlantic Rail-road (Georgia) connecting Chattanooga with Savan-[illegible] and with Charleston, commenced active operations on the basin of New-[illegible] in North-Eastern Alabama and South-Eastern Tennessee. Now the [illegible] of this operation on the cotton receipts of New-Orleans, may be shadowed [illegible] the following tabular facts:

[illegible] RECEIPTS OF COTTON AT THE SEVERAL PORTS FOR 1848, 1849 AND 1850.

	RECEIPTS IN BALES.			RECEIPTS IN PER CENTAGE OF TOTAL CROP.		
	1848.	1849.	1850.	1848.	1849.	1850.
[illegible]	1,191,000	1,094,000	797,000	50.7	40.1	38.1
[illegible]	436,000	519,000	351,000	18.6	19.0	16.8
[illegible] ports	194,000	239,000	200,000	8.3	8.8	9.8
[illegible]	255,000	391,000	344,000	10.9	14.3	16.4
[illegible]	261,000	458,000	384,000	11.1	16.8	18.4
[illegible] ports	11,000	28,000	19,000	0.5	1.0	0.6
[illegible]	2,348,000	2,729,000	2,091,000	100.0	100.0	100.0

New-Orleans has therefore *lost* from the date of the opening of the Chattanooga Rail-road to the date of the last annual return of the cotton crop, 12.6 *per cent. of the total crop*, while Savannah and Charleston, the termini of that Rail-road, have *gained* within that time, 12.8 *per cent. of the total crop*. It is unnecessary to add another word to this: the figures are a very legible writing on the wall. But what will New-Orleans lose when this Chattanooga road is extended into North-Eastern Alabama, and into the heart of Tennessee! Yet both extensions are in progress, one approaching to completion, and Charleston subsidies pushing it forward with giant strides! Verily, this cloud above the horizon of New-Orleans is black and boding.

12.—TOTAL RAIL-ROADS IN THE SOUTHERN STATES.*

RAIL-ROADS COMPLETED, OR IN PROGRESS, IN VIRGINIA, NORTH AND SOUTH CAROLINA, GEORGIA, AND FLORIDA.

	Opened.	Miles	Total length of road.
Richmond, Fredericksburg and Potomac	1837	61½	75½
Richmond and Petersburg	1838	22½	22½
Louisa	1838	35	49
Richmond and Coal Mines		12	12
Chesterfield	1831	13	13
Petersburg and Roanoke	1833	60	60
City Point	1838	9	9
Greensville and Roanoke	1838	17⅔	17⅔
Portsmouth and Roanoke	1837	78½	78½
Winchester and Potomac	1836	32	32
Experimental	1833	1½	1½
Raleigh and Gaston	1840	84½†	84½
Wilmington and Raleigh	1840	161†	161
Charleston and Hamburg	1833	136	136
Louisville, Cincinnati & Charleston			66
Georgia	1839	87½	211½
Central	1840	100†	193
Monroe	1839	24	96
Western and Atlantic			140
Tallahasse	1837	22	24
St. Joseph and Lake Wimico	1836	8	8
St. Joseph and Iola	1839	28	28
Alabama, Florida and Georgia			56½
Total		994	1675½

RAIL-ROADS COMPLETED, OR IN PROGRESS, IN ALABAMA, LOUISIANA, MISSISSIPPI, TENNESSEE, AND KENTUCKY.

	Opened.	Miles.	Total length of road.
Montgomery and West Point			85
Wetumpka and Coosa			56
Selma and Tennessee			170
Cahawba and Marion			27
Linden and Demopolis			22
Mobile and Cedar Point	1837	5	26½
Tuscumbia, Courtland and Decatur		46	46
Pontchartrain	1831	4½	4½
New-Orleans and Nashville	1839	22½	88
Bath	1837	1½	6
Carrolton	1837	7½	7½
Orleans-Street		1½	1½
Lake Borgne	1838	5	25
Alexandria and Cheneville	1839	6	30
Baton Rouge and Clinton			30
Clinton and Port Hudson	1839	14	28
West Feliciana‡			28
Mississippi	1839	25	140
Vicksburg and Jackson	1839	25	45
Jackson and Brandon			12
Raymond			6
Grand Gulf and Port Gibson			7
Hiwasse			97
Lagrange and Memphis			50
Somerville and Branch			13½
Lexington and Ohio	1835	30½	94½
Portage	1837	1½	1½
		195	1148½

* We confess our obligations to the Rail-Road Journal, New-York, for this valuable abridgment and table, as well as the most material aid in general, in making up our Rail-Road Department.

† These distances stated as opened, were completed in 1840.

‡ 7½ miles of this road are in the state of Mississippi.

GALLERY OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

HENRY W. CONNER, of Charleston.

WITH A PORTRAIT.

No. 5.

"The fame that a man wins himself is best;
That he may call his own. Honors put on
Make him no more a man than his clothes do,
Which are as soon ta'en off."

In continuing our series of sketches of the lives of individuals who have been distinguished as benefactors to the communities in which they live, and to the country at large, it affords us peculiar pleasure when the subject is a resident of our native state and city, to which we are bound by so many endearing ties and never-to-be-forgotten associations, and for the prosperity of which we entertain the fond hopes of a lover, which can never cease to animate us until they are extinguished by the icy hand of death.

The subject of our memoir was born in Mecklenburgh county, in North Carolina, on the 4th day of March, 1797. He was at the Academy of the Rev. Samuel C. Caldwell, near Charlotte, N. C., preparing for college, when the war of 1812 broke out; but on the capture of Washington City by the British troops, he left school to join the army, but peace was proclaimed soon after.

In 1816, he was sent by his father to Tennessee, to look after lands granted to him for revolutionary services, that had become involved in litigation. He spent the greater part of his time for three years in that state—sometimes exploring and surveying wild lands on the banks of the Mississippi—then known as the Chickasaw Purchase, but since as the Western District; and at other times managing and conducting law-suits, and contending with lawyers and solicitors of great power and influence. Mr. C. has often been heard to say, that those three years were worth all the schooling of his life besides. While in Tennessee, he attached himself to a company, for the purchase of a large tract of country in the province of Texas, from the government of Mexico, which resulted in obtaining from Iturbide, the Emperor, a grant of some twelve millions of acres, and the conditional purchase of some seventeen millions more from Gen. Wilkinson, then in Mexico. A scheme was on foot, at that time, with a few persons of note, to establish a trading company, under a sort of military colony organization, at the mouth of the Columbia River, on the Pacific. This was favorably considered by Mr. C.—so much so that he had at one time made his arrangements to go to Mexico, and thence to the mouth of the Columbia; but circumstances occurred in North Carolina to make his return to that state necessary, and the design was abandoned.

In the fall of 1822, he came to Charleston, and commenced business as a factor and commission merchant, under the firm of Conner & Wilson, with a branch at Cheraw. At that time steam was in its infancy, and no steamboat had ventured to bring her own cargo, even inland, through from Cheraw to Charleston, but stopped at Georgetown, and re-shipped again in schooners. Mr. C. soon formed the design of running steamboats all the way through without breaking bulk, and mainly through his efforts the design was effectually carried out. It seems almost incredible now that such a difficulty ever existed.

Another design was soon after this set on foot, and successfully carried on by Mr. C. The town of Macon, in Georgia, had sprung up rapidly, and grown to be a place of considerable business; and the cotton received there from the rich and fertile country around, was seeking its way, but by the very slow process of pole-boats, to Darien, and hence by sloops and schooners to Charleston. To remedy this, and open a communi.

cation direct, by steam, Mr. C. fitted out a steamboat called the North Carolina, of light draft of water, and dispatched her to Darien, and from thence up the Oakmulgee River to Macon. After a tedious and difficult passage, she reached Macon; she was the first steamboat that ever arrived there, but was very soon followed by others.

Great difficulties existed at that time in navigating the Savannah River at low water. The steamboats then built were large and heavy in their draft of water, and illy adapted to the navigation of low rivers. Mr. C. constructed, or rather re-constructed, under the name of the Andrew Jackson, his steamer, (the North Carolina,) of much lighter draft than any boat that had ever been on that river before or since. To the admiration of every one, she ascended and descended, to and from Augusta and Charleston, with her full cargoes, at all seasons of the year, and all states of the river. In the midst of her successes, however, she blew up and sunk.

Mr. C.'s next enterprise was to form a line of steamboats, to run with freight and passengers, from Charleston to Augusta, the rail-road at that time not being in use; and there was no other conveyance except stage-coaches and transient steamboats. The William Seabrook was built under his direction, and the John David Mongin, purchased for a company, and successfully conducted by Mr. C. This was in the year 1831 or '32. In 1833, he formed a connection, in the importing and jobbing business, in hardware, cutlery, &c.; and was extensively engaged in it for more than seven years. In 1835, he became interested with a company in the purchase and improvement of the burnt lands in Charleston. He was agent, and worked energetically in the service of the company. That beautiful range of buildings in Hayne-st., in Charleston, twenty-three in number, was built under his superintendence and direction. The last thirteen of them were completed in the extraordinarily short period of sixty-three working days! Mr. C. was also deeply interested in the Charleston Hotel, and contributed largely, both in organizing the company, and in superintending the building of its magnificent structure—a noble monument to his labors. In the interior of St. Paul's, in London, there is this inscription: To Sir Christopher Wren, *Si queris monumentum, circumspice*—"If you wish to see his monument, look around."

In 1841, Mr. C. retired from business, and was soon after elected President of the Bank of Charleston. From that time to within a short period of his leaving the bank, a memorable era ensued in the history of the commercial world. It was Mr. C's good fortune to conduct the bank safely and triumphantly through all the perils of that remarkable period. Up to the time when he came into the bank, its business was entirely local. It had but one agency, (at Columbia,) and did but little business out of the city of Charleston. He organized at once a system of agencies through out the country, which has done more, perhaps, to extend the business of Charleston, than all other causes put together, for the last sixty years. It was his maxim, that banking and exchanges should follow the course of trade; and, practising upon this principle, he established agencies at New-Orleans, Mobile, Montgomery, Columbus, (Georgia;) Apalachicola, Macon, Savannah, Augusta, and in Hamburgh, Columbia and Camden, besides extending very greatly the foreign transactions of the bank, which, while it extended the commercial intercourse of the city, at the same time added to the business and profits of the bank. The history and character of the Bank of Charleston, however, is well-known.

In 1847, the great famine in Ireland prevailed. Mr. C's father was from Ireland, and his sympathies were strongly enlisted in behalf of that gallant, but suffering people. His exertions in their behalf were unusually successful. The committee, of which he was the active head, raised in a very short time, in Charleston, about $25,000 in money, besides a large quantity of clothing and food, which were pushed forward in all haste to those points where the sufferings were greatest. At the next anniversary of the Hibernian Society, the venerable President, James Adger, Esq., vacated the office, and in compliment to Mr. C. agreed to accept the Vice-Presidency, on condition that he would accept the Presidency. He was accordingly elected, and has been unanimously re-elected ever since.

Mr. C., and a few other active friends, organized the Charleston Gas-Light Company in 1848; and in twelve months had it in complete operation. These are, perhaps, the best gas works in the United States.

With the view of diverting trade and travel from the north, and retaining it at home, it was determined to erect a Hotel on Sullivan's Island, of such accommodations as would furnish the necessary inducements for people to remain at home. Mr. C. was placed at the head, as President of the Company. In the course of eight months the building was completed, and its success surpassed the most sanguine expectations. It stands forth, a proud monument of the public spirit and enterprise of the people of Charleston. We append an engraving of this beautiful structure to the end of our biography, and refer the reader to our January No., in which he will find a full description of the Island and Hotel—the Rockaway of the South—from a personal visit last summer. This was in 1848. In 1850, he was elected President of the South Carolina Rail-Road Company, an office at all times surrounded with many difficulties; the duties of which, we have no doubt, from his large business capacities, he will discharge with honor and success.

At the last session of the legislature of South Carolina, Mr. C., in connection with other public-spirited gentlemen, obtained charters for an "Atlantic Steam Navigation Company," with the view of starting immediately a line of steam-propellers between Charleston and Liverpool; and for a water-works company, with the view of supplying the city of Charleston with water from the Edisto River. Both projects are of vital importance to the prosperity of Charleston; and if he should have it in his power, by any efforts, to aid in accomplishing them, Mr. Conner may well feel that he has done the "State some service," in return for the kindness and consideration which her people, especially those of Charleston, have ever manifested towards him, from the period, almost, of his early and obscure beginnings among them.

It was the fortune of Mr. Conner to have contributed, perhaps, more than any other individual, excepting Mr. Petigru, in inducing the city to subscribe the sum of $500,000 towards the *Nashville and Chattanooga Rail-Road*, the effect of which upon the fortunes of Charleston, no one can yet fully estimate.

In dismissing the subject of our sketch, we will remark, that he has never sought office, or been a candidate for popular favor, but once. In 1836, to try the question of salary or no salary for the Intendency, a vacancy was made in Council, in order to bring the question before the people. Mr. C. was a candidate on the salary side, and was elected alderman. The cholera prevailed that year in Charleston, which gave active employment to his services on the Committee of Relief.

The city of Charleston now owns the statue of Mr. Calhoun, by Powers; the statue was ordered by Mr. Conner, and a few of the personal friends of Mr. Calhoun, some six years ago. They assumed the responsibility and paid the money for the work in the first instance, but with the view of allowing the people of Charleston to have it. Since the death of Mr. Calhoun the City Council have become the proprietors, and have enlarged the compensation of Powers to $6,000 instead of $4,000, as first agreed upon.*

A short time before Mr. Calhoun's death, and about the time it was ascertained that he was declining, it was resolved by a number of public-spirited gentlemen, to raise by subscription among themselves, a sum of money sufficient to pay off some debts, that, in his devotion to the public interests, he had been obliged to contract, and furnish him with ample funds to travel to Europe. The design was to demand it of him as a duty to his state, to quit Congress for a time, and go abroad. He died before they had made up the amount, or communicated with him upon the subject. The total sum raised was near $30,000. The venerable Judge Huger, H.

* It will be remembered, perhaps, that the Statue was sunk in the sea for several weeks, in consequence of the wreck of the vessel which sailed with it from Genoa. When recovered, it was found that one of the arms was somewhat mutilated; but the right arm was uninjured. The forefinger pointed to the scroll which contained the words TRUTH, JUSTICE, CONSTITUTION. The two first were broken off, and the word CONSTITUTION stood alone in bold relief.

Gourdin, and M. Conner, were the movers in the matter, and acted as the trustees.*

We trust that it will not be imputed to vanity that we compare the death of Mr. Calhoun with that of England's greatest statesman, the illustrious Pitt, who died penniless; or with Aristides and Pericles of old—the one of whom died so poor that he did not leave enough to pay for his funeral; and the other, on overhearing the remarks of his friends who had gathered around his death bed, said: that they had forgotten his greatest praise, to wit, "that no Athenian through his means had been made to put on mourning." So devoted was he to the interests of the state, and so regardless of his own, that it was found at his death that he had not added a single drachma to his hereditary property. Such was the character and such the death of Carolina's honored son. If England has reared monuments in Westminster Abbey to perpetuate the memory of her mighty dead, and Athens erected statues in honor of hers, surely it is but justice to Mr. Calhoun to have similar testimonials of his worth. But, like the Father of his Country, his fame will be perpetuated by memorials more lasting than brass, and more towering than the Pyramids; it will live forever in the hearts of his countrymen, and succeeding ages will repeat the echo of that name, which was never sounded while he lived without raising the breast with emotions of pride; and now that he is gone to his long home to enjoy the repose of the just, it will never be heard without exciting the tear of sorrow and regret, by every true son of Carolina!

* In communicating their action to Mrs. Calhoun, the committee very delicately say:

"In this hope, his many friends deemed it a privilege to do their part towards freeing his mind as far as it was possible from every care, both of a public and private nature, and they united in raising quietly, and without his knowledge, a sum of money, not only adequate to the payment of his debts in this state, but sufficient also to enable him to travel for his health, could he have been prevailed on to do so. By liquidating his debts without any previous intimation to him of their design, they had hoped to have reconciled their course to his high and fastidious sense of independence, and to have induced him to yield to their earnest wish for his temporary, if not permanent, retirement from the arena of public life.

"His sudden and lamented death defeated all their plans, and disappointed all their hopes.

"But though denied the gratification of presenting to him this offering of their gratitude and affection, they still claim the privilege of rendering to the dead the tribute of their profound veneration and sincere attachment, by turning to you, the mother of his children, the object of his pure, noble, devoted and constant affection, and the chief mourner over the sad event, that has filled every Carolina heart with sorrow, and respectfully and affectionately claim that they may regard you as the representative of him they so highly revered; and that you will accept, for your own use, the sum which has been raised, and which is in the hands of the committee to be paid over to you at any moment"

MOULTRIE HOUSE—SULLIVAN'S ISLAND.

HON. JOHN G. WINTER, OF GEORGIA.

WITH A PORTRAIT.

NO. 4.

——"Perseverance is a Roman virtue,
That wins each godlike act, and plucks success
Even from the spear-proof crest of rugged danger."

THE course of our sketches of distinguished practical men in the South, brings us to speak of one, who is most extensively known throughout Georgia and the neighboring states, as well as in most of the commercial cities of the Union, for the boldness of his enterprise, the soundness of his judgment, his untiring perseverance, his great and prosperous undertakings. We refer to Col. JOHN G. WINTER, of Georgia.

This gentleman was born on the 7th of April, 1799, in the City of New-York. His father, Joseph Winter, was a practising lawyer at the New-York bar, of some eminence in his day. His mother was remarkable for intellect and energy of character, and lived to the advanced age of 92 years, retaining her mind in its pristine vigor up to the very day of her decease.

At the age of fifteen years he left school, and entered as clerk in the commission house of J. & C. Bolton, New-York, who were transacting a large business in the southern trade. Fresh from school, and without the slightest knowledge of accounts, his employers found him notwithstanding so apt and energetic, that they gave him charge of their affairs within two weeks after he entered their service.

In 1817, before he was eighteen years of age, he married, and emigrated with his young and interesting wife to Kentucky, from thence to Augusta, Georgia, and entered into the service of an elder brother. A couple of riding-horses, and the fractional part of a dollar in cash, was the extent of his possessions in the world. He received a small legacy of $1,300 from the estate of his brother Samuel, who died in New-Orleans, and with this capital, embarked in the dry-goods business in Augusta. His resources being small, and better suited for a country-place, at the end of six months he purchased an interest in a small store in Warrenton, Georgia. This was about the year 1821–2, and may be noted as the commencement of a career, which, when viewed in connection with the history of the times, and the circumstances under which he acted, as unparalleled in the history of any of his compeers for the same period. While he reaps the reward which his talents, industry and honesty justly entitle him to, and his children have the proud satisfaction of inheriting a name and reputation untarnished by a single failure, he leaves to his country and posterity the fruits of his labors, and the impress of his genius, which will live when he is dead, and be an encouraging example worthy of imitation by the rising generation.

Warrenton was but a small village—the county-seat of Warren County, and contained at that time about 250 whites; the county was the reverse of fertile, and thinly inhabited. Col. Winter's business gradually increased, and in a few years he gave laws to the trade of the village, and established it upon a new basis: (his maxim being that homely but apposite one, that a nimble penny was better than a slow shilling.) No village similarly situated could boast of an equal trade; gradually increasing from fifty or seventy-five thousand to nearly two hundred and fifty thousand dollars per annum. His sagacity in foreseeing the want of supplies, was not more conspicuous than his energy and promptitude in procuring them.

From 1825 to 1831, Col. Winter was the leading member of the County Court, (five Judges,) and during the time never had a decision reversed by the court above. As off-hand debater, his sound, practical ideas, and common-sense views, delivered with

characteristic energy and clearness, rarely failed to force conviction, and gave him great influence in the adjustment of all the practical questions of the day, in which he usually took a leading and active part, in the smallest as well as the greatest. In the minutiæ of the farm, as well as in the more intricate subjects of commerce, finance, mechanic arts and internal improvements, which so actively engaged him in after life, he seemed to be perfectly at home alike, and as if in his natural element. In 1835 he had amassed a snug fortune, and believing that a revulsion in commerce would shortly take place, he purchased a plantation near Augusta, and retired from commercial pursuits. The revulsion was delayed by continued and enlarged issues of state bonds and other corporation credits, until 1837, by which time every species of property had acquired a great and fictitious value. In January of this year, foreseeing that the explosion which afterwards took place was close at hand, he sold to the highest bidder all of his real, and most of his personal estate. He sold on a term of years, but with an eye to the troubles which were brewing, and thoroughly secured the payments, so that he did not lose a mill.

In May 1837, came the revulsion, which prostrated the whole banking system of the United States. With his usual promptness, Colonel Winter embarked in the exchange business, the very day after the banks in Augusta suspended specie payments. Having sold his property in time, his cash means were very small, and though without any backers, such was the vigor of his operations, in less than six months he regulated almost the entire exchanges of Georgia and South Carolina. He published exchange tables, with such clear and accurate reference to the laws of supply and demand, that in all the surrounding states they were referred to, and became the arbiter of settlement between debtor and creditor in settling the value of a currency disordered almost beyond conception. A majority of people seeming to mistake the cause for the effect, supposed that the rates of dishonored banks rose and fell according to his will and pleasure. To escape the odium which it caused, he abandoned very soon the publication. In 1838, he purchased the blank charter of the Bank of Brunswick, which he immediately put into successful and active operation in Augusta. In 1839, he foretold the suspension of the Southern banks, (which took place in September or October) and placed the Bank of Brunswick in a position to meet the *crisis*, and continued specie payments while most of the southern banks had suspended. In 1840, he sold the charter to a very responsible company for a large premium, taking undoubted bonds to withdraw all the circulation he had put afloat. Before parting with the charter, he established an agency at Apalachicola, Florida, where the currency was in a state of the utmost confusion; and by the second season's business, through the influence of this agency mainly, he effected a happy and very beneficial change in the trade of the city, restoring prosperity, by furnishing a well-regulated basis for exchanges.

In 1841, he purchased a controlling vote in the Bank of St. Mary's, then located in the town of St. Mary's, Geo., which was about winding up its affairs, with a loss of 30 per cent. or more of its capital. In less than 18 months he made up the loss which the capital stock had sustained, although in the time a robbery had been committed of a package of bank notes, which resulted in a loss of three per cent. of the capital of the bank. From the day on which the capital was made good by his efforts, the bank has declared a regular dividend of eight per cent. per annum, and has accumulated a surplus equal to nearly two-thirds of the whole amount it was worth when he took charge of its affairs. Soon after Col. Winter took the management of the bank, he established an agency in Columbus, Geo., where he purposed to do its principal business; and to silence all objections and remove all cause for the hue and cry that some persons were continually raising that the bank was so far off, the people could not get coin for their notes, he immediately applied to the legislature for permission to remove it to Columbus. This was granted, although opposed violently by some members; and the bank and the family of Col. W. were removed to Columbus in 1845-[illegible]. He now established a plantation in the

Chattahoochie, some three or four miles below the city. The currency of Western Georgia, Alabama, and portions of Florida, were still *mixed*, and exchanges very irregular, varying from two to forty per cent., according to the character of the funds offered; public confidence was still at a low ebb. The affairs of the city corporation were in a state of extreme embarrassment; her credits, which had been put in circulation as money, was selling in the streets at 35 to 40 cents to the dollar. Col. Winter having become a citizen of Columbus, instead of using his means to buy up the credits of the city at a ruinous sacrifice to those who held them, for without immediate available means, the city authorities would have been under the temporary necessity of repudiating her change bills in collecting the revenue, in order to obtain available funds to defray the current expenses of the government—he came forward and loaned the city thirty thousand dollars for a term of years, at simple interest, which brought up her credits, before the close of the year, to nearly, or perhaps quite, *par*. In 1844, he was elected mayor of the city, (and, as might naturally be expected,) by a large majority, although opposed by a powerful influence, (which was brought to bear,) and a strong and popular man, yet he carried all the six wards of the city by a majority unparalleled, either before or since. The subsequent year he was chosen without opposition.

Although he purchased not quite two-thirds of the capital stock of the Bank of St. Mary's, yet the management was so exclusively and palpably his, that it excited the jealousy of some of his competitors, who could not well bear the idea that a bank, with comparatively a small capital, managed by a single individual, should cope with older and long-established institutions, managed by able boards of direction, and they were not sparing of their exertions to impair public confidence, prophesying continually the failure of the bank; which so affected the public mind, numerous failures having recently occurred in the state, and particularly in Columbus, that the bank was run upon for specie for not less than three years, almost without intermission. Although its capital at that period was but little above $130,000, yet it was called upon for coin within the three years for more than as many millions. Although no supplies of coin could be obtained nearer than Augusta, which was distant from Columbus about 300 miles, during the whole period of the run, he was never known to ask for the institution under his charge the loan of a dollar, or to offer in settlement *time paper*, or anything but coin or the notes of the bank making the demand. During this prolonged and unprecedented run, he adopted the bold policy of ordering the teller to ask every person presenting a check, whether he would take coin or the notes of the bank. This institution being the only one for redemption between Augusta, Ga., and Mobile, Ala., has to supply the metallic basis for a country not less, probably, than 600,000 square miles.

Shortly after locating in Columbus, Col. Winter notified the public that he should bring down exchange on New-York to one per cent. premium or less; and whilst he remained in the business in Columbus, it should never rise above that point. He has kept his promise. Previously, as before remarked, it varied from two to forty per cent., and frequently a good bill could not be had. There has been no day in nine years that one could not procure from the Bank of St. Mary's a check on New-York, at three days sight, or less, for any amount, at a rate not over one per cent. About half per cent premium has been the average rate, and from that point it has never varied one half per cent. either way. In 1844 or 5, an apparently combined effort, assisted by strong opposing interests, was made, to produce an effectual run upon the Bank of St. Mary's. The parties to the scheme were designedly engaged some sixty days in accumulating a sum thought to be sufficient. This was done in a quiet, secret manner, in order to throw the president off his guard; yet, with a vigilance that never slept, he suspected the movement, and prepared for it. When the stake-holder presented his demand, the coin was ready for him. This was on Saturday, and on the same day he drew from the Augusta banks about an equal amount, and had it in his vaults on Monday. By this time the wicked attempt to destroy the credit of a sound and useful institution, had been amply discussed by the citizens of Columbus, and various were the surmises as

bank could stand the thou- demands which would follow moth haul as had been made on to quiet all apprehension, about Monday, Col. Winter called in a ee of some dozen or more of the espectable citizens, and opened the of the bank, spread the coin in such a that they saw, at a single glance, an nount equal to the whole capital of the ank! The exhibition quieted all apprehension, and established the bank permanently in the confidence of the public; thus achieving a triumph which, under all the circumstances, has no parallel in the history of banking, and proves, conclusively, that the word *fail* ought to be stricken from the vocabulary of banking. About 1846, the opposition to the bank having almost entirely ceased, its business had assumed a regular shape, and did not give sufficient employment to so active a mind. He then turned his attention more to new enterprises in the mechanic arts. He established the Variety Works, in Columbus, and the Montgomery Iron Works; the former is applied to working up the timber of the country into various shapes—sawing, turning, planing, &c., by water power; the latter is devoted to all kinds of iron work, and, contrary to general expectation, is doing an immense business; employing some one hundred hands or more, and is driven by steam. Shortly after the erection of these works he erected two extensive Merchant Mills; one driven by steam, in Montgomery, and the other by water, in Columbus—either capable of turning out over one hundred barrels of flour per day; and for completeness of finish and fixtures, are, probably, not excelled in the Union. The crop of the surrounding country having failed for two successive years, he imports entire cargoes from the north and the west, and sells flour as low as it can be imported at, from any market, and of a quality so superior, that it bears down nearly all opposition. About two years since he started a Paper Mill, about three miles above Columbus, which has recently been completed, and is probably the most superior establishment of the kind in the South. All the old rags of the country, that were formerly thrown into the barn-yard or the fireplace, are now converted into cash at the Rock Island Factory. Having too much else to attend to, he has recently transferred his *charge* in the *Variety Works* and Paper Mills to other hands, and has turned his attention to plank roads. He is the president of one which leads from Wetumpka, Ala., to the Tennessee River, and, despite of the difficulty of constructing a plank road through a wilderness, where there were not saw mills enough in reach of the road to plank it in twenty years; yet there is every probability that he will complete the road, of 165 miles in length, in less than two years from the time the company organized; and he looks upon this work as the most useful one he has ever engaged in, and prophesies that in its effects upon the rapid development of the vast natural resources of the country through which it runs, and its influence in stimulating the yet dormant enterprise of the people, it will astonish its most ardent supporters, and will, at the same time, yield the most ample returns to the stockholders. Time will show whether his judgment is as unerring in this as in alformer enterprises. Col. Winter bears the reputation of being a great *financier*. This, by many, is understood to be, a good hand at raising the wind. In this branch of financiering he is utterly unpracticed. His forecast and prudence prevents the *necessity*, for he is never taken unawares.

He appears always to have provided for every contingency. From the time he started in Warrenton with thirteen hundred dollars, he has never been known to be hard-pressed, or obliged to "shinny," (as it is sometimes inelegantly called.)

His ambition to succeed in his undertakings is greater than his desire for gain. He has held various offices of power and trust for the past twenty-five years, almost without intermission; yet he has never served for a salary. When he took charge of the Bank of St. Mary's, there was a salary of $500 attached to the office of President, for duties that up to that time had been almost nominal. He has never made an effort to increase the amount originally fixed to the office, although his labors for years did not average less than fifteen hours out of the twenty-four. This is the only compensation, if it can be called one, he has ever received for any office. Col. Winter is now over fifty

years of age, but possessing naturally a vigorous constitution, temperate habits, and a cheerful disposition; the hand of time has borne lightly upon him, and he has a fair prospect for many more years of usefulness in his noble career, before the shades of evening quench the fire of his energy, or dampen the ardor of his enterprise.

His estate is variously estimated, but from facts known to ourselves, cannot now be far, if any, short of a million of dollars, and it is still fast accumulating. Throughout this vast field of enterprise, he has maintained a character really enviable in his private relations, as well as in public. No man is probably his equal in our country, for foresight and sound judgment; and he has sustained himself in every position with an integrity of character, of which his children, his friends and his state, may well be proud of. Such men deserve the highest honors.

EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

1.—NEW-ORLEANS—CONSOLIDATION OF MUNICIPALITIES, BANKS, RAIL-ROAD ENTERPRISES, ETC.

There seems to be at least a pretty general and well established conviction abroad, that something must be done to advance the stationary, or perhaps retrograding fortunes, of New-Orleans.

We believe that this work can be effected, and have said so upon several occasions, though at the same time admitting the almost superhuman hardships that must be encountered first.

I.—It is necessary that we begin aright, and there is no step earlier than that of the *consolidation of the municipalities*. The people having passed through much tribulation, are now prepared for the movement, which would have been successful twelve months ago if presented as a naked proposition—the details of which were to be regulated hereafter. A fair majority, it is thought, would cast their votes to morrow, in favor of consolidation, and the sentiment is a growing one. We have found the evils of rival systems operating in a contracted area, like the inextricable mazes of German principalities, which nobody in the world but the Germans could understand. Rival tax-collectors follow in the train, and a triple host of officials, well paid and provided, and honestly performing the duties which could as well be performed by half their number. Trade, and commerce, and property, must pay for all of this; and who in the name of Heaven receives a *special* benefit? Is it the army of officers? Why, gentlemen, if these unnatural divisions are done away with, and New-Orleans becomes as God intended her to be, a great and a growing city, there shall be such an increase of employment, that those of you who are discharged now, will be speedily needed again, and in the general prosperity find even higher remuneration! We appeal to you in this matter, believing your hearts and your heads to be right, where the public weal is concerned. Whence the necessity of these divisions? Are we told the people of the municipalities are of different origins, with different prejudices, and can only be unequally yoked together? Well then, let us dissolve the union of the states on that account; or, at least, and the reason is equally strong, let us not be guilty of the absurdity of confounding in one general whole, with all their discordant prejudices, French Catalans and Americans, and their descendants, as we find them scattered throughout Louisiana under the one legislative and executive government of Baton Rouge!! Discordant prejudices, indeed! Those times are past, and habits of long association, intermarriage, and a better knowledge of each other, with common hopes and prospects, and republican pride, have made the people of Louisiana and of New-Orleans, ONE. What other great city has willingly doomed itself to such fetters as these? *New-York?*—Why, she has just found it inconvenient to be separated from Brooklyn, though a broad river intervenes. *Charleston?*—Our enterprising and growing neighbor has broken down at least the barriers to her progress, which resulted from an independent government, existing in her upper municipality! Her experience has been like ours. And what shall be said of

Cincinnati or St. Louis? How is it that these cities have been making such amazing strides, notwithstanding a population more heterogeneous than our own, have found not the boasted blessings of triple or quadruple organizations? Let us profit, fellow-citizens, by the example of our neighbors.

II.—Having effected the consolidation of the city, we must then look around for other means of advancement. There is no doubt we are suffering for the want of capital, and what will be equally admitted, that our banking facilities are greatly less than those of any other large exporting and importing city in America. Let us examine the facts:

CITY BANKING CAPITAL.

	Banks	
Boston	30	$21,760,000
New-York	29	27,640,000
" with Brooklyn	33	29,000,000
Philadelphia	15	10,600,000
Charleston	7	9,153,000
New-Orleans	5	10,786,000*

This singular fact of our financial imbecility has attracted the attention of our neighbors, who are quick to take advantage of it. We quote from the New-York Courier and Enquirer:

"The Eastern cities are the great importing cities, and have plenty of money with which to force foreign goods into the country—last year these cities alone imported goods to the enormous value of $226,000,000. New-Orleans is the great exporting city of the Union, her exports more than doubling that of New-York, Boston, and Philadelphia put together—and she is without money to purchase and send abroad the products of the country!

"At New-Orleans, last year, produce to the value of $96,879,464, was received for sale and shipment abroad, and New-Orleans had but $10,377,418 banking capital, with which to furnish means to buy it; whilst, on the other hand, New-York, Philadelphia, and Boston, together shipped less than $45,000,000 produce, and had a banking capital within those three cities of $59,578,930. The north-western merchant, shipping produce to New-York, can always command a better price than at New-Orleans, and be accommodated with goods on easier terms and longer time."

This imbecility was not always the case in New-Orleans. There was a time, and that when the commerce of the city was only one-half its present bulk, we had a banking capital of $40,000,000. Granted that it was in the days of riotous speculation, followed by universal bankruptcy, and that stupendous frauds were perpetrated in the country under the consecrated authority of bank charters. The banking system of the Union was in its infancy, and but loosely understood. Time and experience have effected much in ameliorating and perfecting it. Our neighbors have profited by such experience. Let us be equally wise if we would not be distanced in the race. Shall we discard and reject the remedy because a poison may be distilled from it? Take the Banks of Charleston, for example, and the admirable system of management which has carried them through every crisis, and given their notes a circulation in half a dozen States. The citizens of Charleston know the power their banking system will give in tapping the resources of the West. True, the prejudices of Louisiana against banks have been keen and violent. The Convention assembled in the midst of this excitement and reaction. The new constitution sought at one blow to sweep away the whole system. In the calm which has succeeded, many of us have doubted. Have we not gone too far? In Missouri the Convention followed our example; but already it is proposed in such a shape as must be successful, to raise the capital of the Bank of Missouri from 2 to $5,000,000. In Alabama the Legislature has come back to the banking system, and passed a new charter. It was thought a democratic measure to oppose banks; but the democrats themselves came over at last. We have never understood it to be a part of the democratic faith to war upon a well-organized and established banking system. Witness the course of democratic South Carolina, in promotion of banks. But if we

* To wit:	Capital.	Circulation.
Bank of Louisiana	$4,000,000	$831,239
Canal Bank	3,217,250	1,301,595
Louisiana State Bank	1,775,000	1,712,975
Mechanics' & Traders'	1,794,350	932,855
	$10,786,700	$4,778,644

The total cash liabilities of these banks by a statemet before us, several months old, was about $14,000,000; cash assets, specie, $5,500,000. Total, $19,000,000, etc. The "Union," "City," "Citizens," and "Consolidated Banks" in liquidation. The Mechanics' and Traders', and Canal Bank, fall next. The enlargement of the operations of the Louisiana State Bank by virtue of its branch at Baton Rouge, we entirely agree with Mr. Gayarre, is an unconstitutional movement. Thus our necessities are stronger than the Constitution!

cannot just yet have *joint stock banks*, there can be no reason at least against *free banks*, a system well understood and applied in New-York. We cannot do better than introduce here the views of an intelligent gentleman of this city, premising that it is our intention in the next, and perhaps the ensuing No. of the Review, to present a very elaborate history of the banking system of the United States and Louisiana, together with a sketch of the principles of legitimate banking:

"There is no good reason why the rich State of Louisiana, and New-Orleans, with her immense commerce, should not enjoy equal credit with New-York or Boston; and under a proper enactment to consolidate the municipal debts and that of Lafayette, new bonds at thirty years, or even fifty years, bearing six per cent. interest, would be eagerly sought for at par, and would constitute a safe basis upon which free banks might be chartered. This idea of course presupposes that proper provision is made by taxation or otherwise, for the punctual payment of the interest and the ultimate payment of the principal. Such an adjustment of our existing debt would also immediately relieve the community from the present enormous burden of taxation, which affects equally the owner and occupant of real estate, and would be a vast benefit to the commerce of our city, as the charges thereon would be diminished pro rata with the diminished expenses of those who transact it."

III.—The third remedy that we would suggest for the evils under which New-Orleans at present labors, is the *judicious support of a system of rail roads terminating at her borders, or at such points as are necessarily tributary to her.* Experience has demonstrated that no methods of transportation can compete successfully with the rail road, where the more valuable and lighter freight or passengers are concerned, and that the anticipations of monopoly by virtue of the great river at our door, have been altogether visionary. Wherever a rail-road has been extended from the Eastern cities into the Valley of the Mississippi or Ohio, the result has been a tribute of wealth to be garnered by that city. Against all the theories in the world, we have the facts that Boston and New-York have grown with the construction of Western roads, feeding upon the supplies we had deemed in the day of pride our own, and that the success of such roads in Baltimore, Charleston, and Savannah, have been just in proportion as their arms were lengthened in this direction. In a single year Charleston takes 40,000 bales of cotton, hitherto ours. In a few years more she will take 100,000. The profits of this trade alone, if preserved to New-Orleans, in five years would build for her roads both to Jackson and Opelousas! Where the trade goes, there will go too the travel, the sympathies, and the population. And yet our city will do nothing but dribble out here and there a few thousand dollars, extorted more from her courtesies than her sense of right and duty, in aid of enterprises, having for their object the salvation of her power. And whilst this is the case, our sister cities of Charleston, and Mobile, Savannah, Memphis, St. Louis, Louisville, and Cincinnati, are contributing *millions* in aid of their great rival schemes! We meet the delegations of any of them who are hardy enough to approach us, with the coldness which is shown to paupers or to tax-gatherers, and treat them to a beggarly account of empty benches, when they demand to be heard at our meetings. The gentlemen retire disgusted and incensed, and the few friends they have found among us, conceal their faces in very mortification. Is this state of things to last irremediably? There is but one hope. *The people of New-Orleans must be appealed to at the ballot-box, and the question distinctly put to them, will they instruct their Corporations to subscribe to a certain amount in rail-roads, tributary to the city, and if so, how much?* The bonds of the city can be negotiated without any difficulty, if the municipalities be consolidated, and thus posterity be called upon to contribute towards the benefits they will enjoy. Five millions of dollars will be sufficient for ten years to come, and this five millions, with the aid from other sources, private and public, will be swelled into a rail-road capital of at least twenty-five millions of dollars, to be applied to works immediately necessary in the South-West, every one of which will tell upon the future prosperity of New-Orleans. The value of lands and rents will at once be augmented, as has universally been the case in a ratio much greater than the outlay. Every other city except New-Orleans is making these investments in its *corporate* capacity, and is there

any reason for her exemption? A few of the capitalists and property-holders should not be called upon to do everything. Where the benefit is equal to all—*all* should be compelled to contribute. Hard and griping usury has no claim to be spared. The higher law of public preservation and safety ought alone to be consulted.

If it be asked to what roads we would advocate a contribution, the answer at once is, to all such as a judicious public opinion has settled upon as necessary, whether terminating on our lines, or upon any of the streams and water-courses tributary to us, or which may be made so. We have already clearly marked out a system applicable to New-Orleans, in the papers of Mr. Hewson, in our February number, of this year, and in the present number, to be followed in a month or two, by a third, which shall irresistibly settle the whole question.

A rail-road convention held in our city next winter, and attended by delegates from all the southern and south-western and western states, a result we hope to see accomplished, will effect very much in harmonizing rival schemes, and concentrating public attention upon those which are most important, and make a part of one common system.

And here we must close for the present, reserving for another occasion some remarks upon steam-ships and manufactures, as powerful auxiliaries in the advancement of a community; subjects, by the way, most frequently discussed in our pages for several years back, and we have reason to believe with some effect. Give us but the measures of consolidation—sound and healthy, and adequate banking, rail-roads judiciously laid and supported, and our faith is unbounded in the future prosperity of the city. Without these—the hand-writing is already upon the wall!

2.—MANUFACTURES FOR THE SOUTH—GAIL BORDEN'S MEAT BISCUIT FACTORY, TEXAS.

To J. B. D. De Bow, Esq.:

Some twelve months since I sent you a pamphlet, giving an account of a useful invention, by a highly respectable citizen of Texas, Gail Borden, Jr., termed, by the inventor, *Meat Biscuit*. The favorable opinion I then ventured to express of this new article of food, was based on the examination and trial of some specimens of it, manufactured on a comparatively small scale. Since that time the inventor has put into successful operation an extensive establishment, for its manufacture in large quantities. Both the qualities and appearance of the Meat Biscuit have been considerably improved by manufacturing it on a large scale; and the demand for it, though the factory has been in operation only a few months, has already become large, and is rapidly increasing. Upon the suggestion of some gentlemen of the army, who were favorably impressed by its obvious practical utility, a small quantity was ordered, perhaps in the way of trial, by the government, for the use of the service. The results have been so satisfactory, that orders, amounting to thirteen thousand pounds, have been received and filled by the enterprising proprietor, with the intimation that further orders would be forwarded. The demand for supplies by individuals is also rapidly increasing. Under these circumstances the Meat Biscuit may be regarded as an established and important manufacture, and being an invention made in our section of the confederacy, and specially adapted to the grazing and grain-growing regions of the South and West, perhaps you will deem some notice of the manufactory worthy a place in your Review.

And permit me here to say, that, in my opinion, you have justly appreciated the true interests of the South, in the decided tone of encouragement of manufactures among us, held by the Review. Planting is and will continue to be the chief occupation of the South; the sales of our produce annually amount to large sums of money; but little of this money remains among us; it soon finds its way abroad for the fabrics and manufactures of the northern states and of the Old World. To increase the amount of those large sums, and to keep a portion of them at home, in order to improve and expand our agricultural interests, as well as to give permanent and broad development to other numerous sources of wealth in the South, we must establish and foster those manufactures suited to our climate and productions. No purely agricultural country has ever vied in wealth, and its nu-

merous and high appliances, with those other countries where, without neglecting the soil, manufactures and commerce have flourished. Mining countries, which furnish the representatives of wealth in precious metals, seem condemned to perpetual poverty. Merely grain-growing, grazing and planting countries, though they feed and clothe mankind, seem destined to reach only a moderate degree of national wealth and power. To attain the highest degree of national and individual wealth, and the great blessings which flow therefrom, to the productions of the soil must be added the arts, manufactures and commerce. To the sweat of the brow without, must be united the sweat of the mind within; the labor of the mind, the ingenuity of the hands, the limitless power of machinery, must give a tenfold, and hundred-fold value to the productions of the bowels and of the surface of the earth. So greatly is the value of these productions, of these articles which we commonly call the raw material, augmented by human industry, that it has ever been one of the commonest facts in history to see countries of the poorest soil become the seats of most populous, flourishing, and powerful states, by a wise fostering of manufactures and commerce. For illustration of these facts we need not ransack by-gone times, or roam to other countries; the different sections of the Union, daily force this truth on every one who is not so perversely blind that he wont see. What ought the South, or rather what *must* the South do? We have trusted too much to the fact, that other nations—the world, cannot get along without the productions of our fertile soil. We are writhing on seeing our fair share of political power and influence passing from us, to the more rapidly populating North. Political conventions, amendments—I would rather say changes than amendments, of the Constitution, wont save us. All such reliance will ever prove, as it has hitherto proved, visionary, illusory, and impracticable. We must establish manufactures in our own section of the country, as one very powerful, if not the most powerful, means of adding largely to our population, multiplying our real strength, and increasing our representation and votes in Congress. For this purpose, we need no modification of the tariff, no modification of our opinions on free trade and state rights; indeed, it would be carrying state rights into beneficial practice. And should the North, at length, in the madness of fanaticism, rend asunder the Union, the South would be prepared for the consequences.

Leaving these high state matters, and coming down to Mr. Borden's very useful invention and manufacture, I will venture to give you some account of his establishment.

His factory is now in full and complete operation in Galveston. The buildings are commodious; the machinery entirely new, and of the best description; and every thing about the establishment *neat* and *clean* in the highest degree. In fact, fastidious cleanliness seems to rank with the proprietor as the first of virtues, so scrupulously is it observed.

The building is a two story brick house, 55 feet by 50, with a one-story frame building 40 feet by 24, attached. An engine of ten-horse power, with two cylinder-boilers, constitutes the power to drive the machinery, which consists of biscuit-machines to knead, roll and cut the dough; a fan to raise the fire in a blast-furnace for heating the oven; a grist-mill to pulverise the biscuit—and the *guillotine*, a powerful machine, constructed by Mr. Savage, to cut the meat into small pieces, the better to facilitate its boiling.

There are four wooden caldrons, or tubs, for boiling the meat, and evaporating the liquid or broth; the two for boiling the meat holding 2,300 gallons, will each boil 7,000 lbs. of meat in twelve to sixteen hours; the other two for evaporating, will contain some 1,400 gallons each. All the tubs are heated, or boiled by steam passing through long coiled iron pipes, supplied at pleasure either from the escape-steam from the engine, or direct from the boiler. By this mode of boiling, the steam is condensed into pure distilled water, which may be used for any purposes required in the factory.

When the meat is so far boiled, that the liquid or broth contains the entire nutriment, the solid innutritive portions are separated by a simple process of filtering, so that the broth goes into the evaporators pure and free from all solid and fibrous matter. It is then

evaporated to a degree of consistence resembling sugar-house syrup; its uniform density being determined by a liquid or syrup gauge. One pound of this syrup or extract, contains the nutriment of about eleven pounds of meat, (including its usual proportion of bone) as first put in the caldron. This extract is then mixed with the best and finest flour, kneaded and made into biscuit, by the machines before mentioned. The biscuit is baked upon pans, in an oven so constructed as to produce an uniform firmness. The proportion is two pounds of extract to three pounds of flour; but by baking, the five pounds of dough are reduced to four pounds of biscuit. And this will make what the inventor claims:—the nutriment of over five pounds of meat and over ten ounces of flour in one pound of the "biscuit."

The biscuit resembles in appearance a light-colored sugar-cake, is very friable, and readily pulverized by the grist-mill, or any of the smaller means of pulverizing in common use in every household. It is packed in air-tight casks, or tin canisters; the interstices between the cakes being filled with pulverized biscuit, ground by the mill before mentioned.

The establishment has been fitted up in a very handsome manner, and is highly creditable to the proprietor, who has been aided by Mr. J. S. Savage, very skilful mechanist of Galveston. Apart from the cost of the main building, the expense of fitting it up has been about $10,000. The proprietor expresses himself as under particular obligations to Mr. J. H. Brower, of New-York, by the use of whose name a great portion of the machinery and apparatus was procured in that city.

So long a time was necessarily consumed in fitting up the establishment, that it is only within a few months that the meat-biscuit has been manufactured on an extensive scale. This circumstance, with the fact, that large quantities have been ordered by the government for the use of the army, prevented Mr. Borden from sending quantities of his "biscuit" to the different markets of the Union, until within the last two or three weeks. In the meanwhile the "biscuit" has been in use, and time and experience have more fully tested its qualities; and I feel warranted in saying, that the opinions I expressed twelve months since, of its utility, have been fully sustained. Its power of keeping unimpaired in a hot climate, through the whole year, and on long sea-voyages, has been fully tested. It keeps better than any of the crackers or sea-biscuit of commerce, and seems singularly exempt from being infested by worms and insects. Its qualities, constituting it a full, invigorating ration, on which men can do full work or duty, have been amply verified. It is not a mere make-shift, that will answer when other food cannot be had; it gives to the sailor, the soldier and the laboring man, that sensation of comfortable fullness of the stomach, which the working-man requires; it is savory and digestible enough for the most fastidious appetite; and meets those other final requirements of a suitable food.

I shall not dilate here on the various wants of our times, to meet which the meat-biscuit is adapted, further than to say, that it will be found indispensable in protecting our frontier, by enabling the soldier to pursue the Indian into the wilderness, without being so encumbered by his "transportation," as never to come up with the enemy;—that it will vastly expedite the labors, add to the safety, and diminish the expenses of the boundary and compromise commissions, and, in short, of all enterprises where our frontier settlements are to be visited, or our vast interior territories, stretching to the Pacific, are to be traversed.

I fear I have already trespassed over much on your time; but a meritorious invention of much practical utility, has seemed to me worthy of some notice, in our section of country where it was made.

With great regard,

I am truly yours,

ASHBEL SMITH.

Evergreen, Galveston Bay, Texas, March, 1851.

NOTE.—Mr. Borden informs me, that he is about to visit the World's Fair at London, in May.

3.—FENNER'S SOUTHERN MEDICAL REPORTS.

We have been favored by our friend, Dr. Fenner, with a neat prospectus of the second volume of his *Southern Medical Reports*,

which he designs to issue from the press in June next. In noticing the first volume of these Reports, we expressed the hope, that the enterprising editor would meet with the reward which was due to his eminent services. This has far from happened, but on the contrary, quite a considerable loss has been suffered. Undetermined by such a mishap, and full of sanguine expectations for the future, the author has launched himself again, and appeals most powerfully to the physicians of the South in his behalf. That the appeal will be heard, is our most ardent hope. A remittance of $5 will purchase both the first and second volumes. Advertisements of medical men, books, inventions, &c., inserted upon moderate terms. The editor s address is No. 5 Carondolet-street, New-Orleans. We repeat the language of another occasion. "The intention of Dr. Fenner's book, is:

"1. To induce a more close and rigid study of the diseases which are peculiar to the South, and which can seldom be understood by those who are not familiarly acquainted with the meteorological, topographical and hydrographical relations and conditions which subsist among us. The whole subject must be studied together, if studied thoroughly.

"2. To provoke habits of greater research and industry among southern physicians, and afford a medium of communicating with each other, upon the highest branches of the profession, less ephemeral than the magazines of the day, and to stimulate these professional intercommunications.

"3. To furnish the statesman, planter, or citizen, with full statistics of the mortality of different sections, the tendencies to peculiar diseases, the probable and possible health ameliorations, and those general mortuary facts, which have come now to occupy an important place in the studies of political economists, municipal authorities, planters and legislators."

4.—DR. CHICKERING ON THE BOSTON CENSUS.

We have received a pamphlet containing an elaborate discussion of the Boston Census Report of 1850, from the pen of Dr. Chickering, who is one of the most thorough statisticians in America, and whose work on Immigration, etc., we analyzed several years ago, in the Review.

From the Report of the British Emigration Commissioners, Dr. Chickering states, that in the ten years preceding 1839, 613,258 emigrants left the ports of Great Britain: 47.69 per cent. of whom were destined for the United States. In the ten years preceding 1849, the whole emigration was 1,340,496 for America, of which the per centage to the United States had increased to 68.04. In 1848 and 1849, the aggregate was 480,115: to the United States, 407,683, or 84 per cent.! In addition, a large number of those sailing for Canada find their way hither. Of 253 224 emigrants who have landed in Canada and New-Brunswick during the last five years, upwards of 73,000 proceeded at once to the United States.

Dr. Chickering gives some interesting facts relating to the origin of the Boston population. He estimates on the first of June last about 75 per cent., or 750,000 inhabitants, were of the Massachusetts stock, that is, consisting of those who were there in 1830, and their descendants; about 20 per cent., or 200,000 foreigners, with their children, *mostly Irish!* and 5 per cent., or 50,000 from other states in this Union.

5.—HEALTH AND MORTALITY OF NEW-ORLEANS.

We have the Report of the Board of Health for 1851, which was drawn up, we believe, by Dr. Hort, of this city, so well known for his laborious and assiduous scientific and medical researches.

The report shows, that in New-Orleans and Lafayette, the number of deaths in 1851 was:—

January to April, inclusive	2,336
May to August, inclusive	2,557
September to December, inclusive	2,926
Total	7,819

There are some sixty pages of tables, but no generalization; and it would take half a day to find out from them the number of deaths during the year, distinguishing the ages, sexes, color and country. We have not time for this now, however interesting. 7,819 deaths is a per centage of about 6. We make two or three extracts.

SEWERAGE FOR NEW-ORLEANS.

"Nothing would more effectually relieve the city from the greatest and most dangerous nuisances, and consequently tend to improve the health of the community, and diminish the mortality, and enhance the

value of real estate, swell the amount of our active, industrious population, and promote our commercial prosperity, than the system of sewerage suggested by Dr. Barton in the last annual report of this board.

"As we can find nothing better to say on the subject, we shall quote from that report, in order to keep the question before the public:

"'We have not been able to procure an estimate of the expense of a few leading-covered drains, by which these important results would be obtained; but it is not too much to say, that a perfect system of sewerage and drainage, embracing the city and neighborhood, would be cheap *at any price*, for they at once remove *all the known causes of disease* under the control of the public: filth of every kind, and almost everywhere, and undue moisture. * * * * * The benefits to be derived from sewerage are so palpable, from what has been said, and so clearly in accordance with all experience, that here it might safely be left. Nevertheless, it has been so forcibly put in the following statement of the examination of the distinguished Dr. T. Southwood Smith, before a committee of the House of Commons of England, that we thought we could not do better than make a short extract from it. He declares that in every district in which fever returns frequently, and prevails extensively, there is *uniformly bad sewerage*, a bad supply of water, a bad supply of scavengers, and a constant accumulation of filth.'"

SODA-WATER POISON.

"We consider the interesting paper, written and published by Dr. Fenner, in the first volume of the *Southern Medical Reports*, on the subject of poisoning by lead, as *one* that fairly claims the attention of the board of health. We would not call the colic produced by it an *epidemic*; yet we are convinced by experience and observation, that traces of lead can be found in hydrant-water, in soda-water, in ginger or sassafras beer, and in other beverages concocted for the thirsty during our prolonged summers.

"We can avouch for the propriety of the chemical agents used as tests by Dr. Fenner, to discover the traces of lead in the beverages of which we have just spoken. We have confirmed, by our experiments in the laboratory, the results announced in the report; and we have seen and *felt* enough of colic, produced by drinking the said fluids, to deem the subject worthy of the attention of the mayor and city councils."

6.—THE CHURCH—BISHOP ENGLAND.

Protestantism and Catholicity compared, in their effects upon civilization in Europe. Written in Spanish by Rev. J. Balmes. Translated from the French. Second Edition. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co.; 1851.

Although we have ever had little predilection for theological polemics, and do not find that years increase our desire to assert "orthodoxy" by "blows and knocks;" but holding rather with Pope,

"For modes of faith let graceless zealots fight,
He can't be wrong, whose life is in the right."

We have yet looked over this volume with some interest, and it will, indeed, repay the most attentive perusal. Of course the Reformers are handled without gloves; and in good sooth, many of them deserved but few tender mercies, though, we doubt not, they were at least equal, if not, which our faith teaches, better than their opposers. Mr. Balmes, who died a year or two ago, was one of the most enlightened divines, philosophers, or publicists of Spain, and a most brilliant writer, has left in this volume, an elevated monument to his memory. His positions, wrong or right, are maintained with ability and power, proving himself worthy of the most polished blades of the Protestant world. The work embraces a wide field, and abounds in curious researches amid the mouldering ruins of the middle ages. His subjects, among others, are the cause of Protestantism—its tendency, fanaticism; Protestantism and Catholicity, in their relation to social progress; the Catholic Church and slavery; marriage; celibacy; the Spanish Inquisition; monastic orders; the Jesuits; political liberty and religious intolerance; intellectual development under the influence of Catholicity, etc.

We give the programme of the work, as it is expressed by the American editor:

"When Protestantism could no longer maintain its position in the field of theology, impelling its votaries, by its endless variations, to espouse open infidelity, or to fall back upon the ancient Church, it adopted a new mode of defence, in pointing to its pretended achievements, as the liberator of the human mind, the friend of civil and religious freedom, the patron of science and the arts; in a word, the active element in all social ameliorations. They claim for it the merit of having freed the intellect of man from a degrading bondage, given a noble impulse to enterprise and industry, and sown, in every direction, the seed of national and individual prosperity. To combat this delusion, so well calculated to ensnare the minds of men, in this materialistic and utilitarian age, the author undertook this work."

Messrs. Murphy & Co., of Baltimore, are the most extensive publishers of this class of works in the country. They have advised

us of having forwarded a copy of Bishop England's work to our address, which is not yet at hand. The memory of the Bishop is associated with our earliest years in Charleston, and no man stood higher in the confidence of both Catholic and Protestant parties. It will afford us great pleasure to notice fully his posthumous works, edited by Bishop Reynolds, in 6 vols., in cloth. Of these works the Charleston Courier has said:

"The subjects of these volumes present attractions, not only to the inquirer after religious truth, but to the statesman and to the lawyer they present much that is worthy of their study, as well for the subject matter, as for the style of the writer, and the simplicity of the language which he used to embody the analytical deductions made by his gigantic mind. His Discourses furnish models of oratory worthy of imitation by divines, statesmen, and members of the legal profession.

"We trust that the Protestant and Catholic will vie with each other in showing that they love literature and appreciate worth, without regard to sectarian prejudice."

7.—COAST SURVEY.

We are indebted to Senator Soulé for many valuable public documents, and, in this instance, also, to Gen. Downs and Professor Bache, for a copy of the Coast Survey Report, in 1850. The volume is a very large and valuable one, and is illustrated with 43 maps, showing the different parts of our coast. Twelve others are now in process of engraving. We shall hereafter extract that part of the Report which relates to the keys and reefs of Florida, which is of very great interest. In 1849, there were a reconnoissance of 10,519 square miles, and a triangulation of 4,091. The number of soundings made on the survey, 265,824; number of printed sheets of maps made, 15,162.

8.—FOREIGN REVIEWS.

Blackwood—February, 1851. Contents: Latimer and Ridley; My Novel, No. 6; History of John Bull; Harry Bolton's Curacy; Dangers of the Country; Curran, and his Contemporaries; Lord Holland's Reminiscences; Popery in the 19th Century. The complexion of the first and last articles show the excited state of British feeling on the Romish movements, which threw Lord John into such a tempest of ire. We give the closing stanza of "Latimer and Ridley:"

"The echo of thy tread shall make
The light still higher burn;
A blaze shall rise from Cranmer's grave
And martyr'd Ridley's urn!
A blaze which they, who own thy power,
Shall stand aghast to see;
A blaze that in your infamy
Shall show both them and thee!
Yes, send thy cardinals again,
Once more array thy powers,
Their watchword is—The Pope of Rome,
The Word of God be ours!"

London Quarterly—Contents: Cummings' Hunter Life in Africa; Socrates; Ignatian Epistles; Mysteries of Ceylon; Cheap Sugar and Slave Trade; the British Museum; Germany, and the King of Prussia; Southey; the Ministers and the Pope; Defenceless state of Great Britain, etc.

9.—PERIODICALS, ETC.

Bankers' Magazine for March.—Boston, J. Smith Homans. $5 per annum. Contents:

Banking in Missouri;
Frauds upon Banks;
Finances of New-York;
Banks of New-York;
New Feature in Banking;
Discoveries of the past half Century;
Origin of Usury;
Gold Question;
Gilbert on Banking, Sec. X.;
Bank Statistics of the States;
Stocks and Exchanges, &c.

Farmers' Guide to Scientific and Practical Agriculture; Detailing the labors of the Farm, in all their variety; and adapting them to the seasons of the year, as they successively occur. By Henry Stephens, author of the Book of the Farm, assisted by John P. Norton, New-Haven; New-York, Leonard Scott & Co. No. 15. Price, 25 cents. The work will be completed in 22 numbers.

Shakspeare's Dramatic Works.—Phillips, Sampson & Co., Boston; illustrated. Each No. contains a play, splendidly got up. Price, 25 cents. We have Nos. 34 and 35, "Titus Andronicus" and "Pericles."

10.—CLASSICAL PUBLICATIONS.—HARPERS' ANTHON'S SERIES.

1.—*The Germanica and Agricola of Tacitus*; with English Notes, Critical and Explanatory, from the best and latest authorities; the remarks of Botticher, on the style of Tacitus, and a copious geographical index. By Charles Anthon, LL.D., Professor of the Greek and Latin Languages in Columbia College, New-York, and Rector of the Grammar School. New-York: Harper Brothers, publishers, 82 Cliff-street. 1850.

This is another of the excellent editions of the classics by Dr. Anthon. It is based upon the English edition of Dr. Smith, published in 1840. Much valuable information has been added to the notes and commentaries of Ruperti, Passow and Walsh, which render this work the most complete that has ever appeared in this country. We take pleasure in recommending it to all our schools and colleges.

2.—*Cæsar's Commentaries on the Gallic War*, and the first book of the Greek Paraphrase; with English Notes, critical and explanatory, plans of battles, sieges, &c.; and historical, geographical and archæological indexes. By Charles Anthon, LL.D.

One of the same series that we have already noticed. The notes are ample, and are especially useful to beginners. It is adorned with wood-cuts, illustrating the battles and walls of the ancients, which are curious and instructive. It has also the Greek Paraphrase, which is a literary novelty, and one which is intended to render the study of the Greek language easy to beginners.

3.—*Sallust's Jugurthine War, and Conspiracy of Cataline*; with an English Commentary, and Geographical and Historical Indexes. By Charles Anthon, LL.D.

A new, and much improved edition of Sallust. Several alterations have been made since the edition of 1839. The principal changes will be found to consist in a more enlarged commentary on the Jugurthine War, in the placing of this production of Sallust before the narrative of the conspiracy of Cataline; and in the two Indexes, the one Geographical and the other Historical, which have been appended to the work.

4.—*A System of Latin Versification*, in a series of progressive exercises, including specimens of translation from English and German poetry into Latin verse. For the use of schools and colleges. By Charles Anthon, LL.D.

A work admirably calculated to teach the principles of Latin versification. We notice however, a slight error, in giving Mr. Basil Hall the credit of translating a piece of poetry purporting to be written by Schloss Hainfeld. The author is the late Richard Henry Wilde, of New-Orleans. The piece begins thus:

"My life is like the summer rose."

5.—*A Grammar of the Latin Language.*—By C. G. Zumpt, Ph. D., Professor of the University, and Member of the Royal Academy of Berlin. From the ninth edition of the original, adapted to the use of English students. By Leonard Schmitz, Ph. D., late of the University of Bonn. Corrected and enlarged by Charles Anthon, LL.D.

The work is so universally and favorably known, that it is scarcely necessary to say anything in its praise. We believe that it is the most popular Grammar of the Latin tongue in the English language. Dr. Anthon's valuable foot-notes, and two additional Appendices, make it the most complete edition of the work that has ever appeared.

6.—*A System of Greek Prosody and Metre*, for the use of Schools and Colleges; together with the choral scanning of the Prometheus Vinctus, of Æschylus, and the Ajax and Œdipus Tyrannus, of Sophocles. To which are appended, remarks on Indo-Germanic Analogies. By Charles Anthon, LL.D.

A novel and interesting treatise on the Prosody and Metres of the Greek language. The study of this important branch of classical learning has hitherto been much neglected in our country. We trust that this admirable work will prove to be of great assistance to the youth of our schools and colleges, and that it may be universally adopted by them.

7.—*A System of Latin Prosody and*

Metre, from the best authorities, ancient and modern, by Charles Anthon, LL.D.

Another of the same series, and is characterised by the usual ability, precision and fullness of illustration, for which all of Dr. Anthon's classical works are so pre-eminently distinguished.

8.—*First Latin Lessons*, containing the most important parts of the grammar of the Latin language, together with appropriate exercises in the translating and writing of Latin, for the use of beginners. By Charles Anthon, LL.D.

The object of this work is to familiarize the student with those portions of the grammar which he may from time to time commit to memory, and which relate principally to the declension of nouns and conjugation of verbs. It renders the study of the language much more easy than the old system, which imposed an unnecessary burden upon the tyro, and disgusted him with his labors, which is a great impediment to the progress of science in any department, and especially in the learning of languages. The work is complete in all respects, and we recommend it cordially to public favor.

9.—*An Introduction to Greek Prose-Composition*, with copious explanatory exercises, in which all the important principles of Greek Syntax are fully elucidated. By Charles Anthon, LL.D.

The object of the editor in publishing this volume, has been to make the student more fully acquainted, than could be done in an ordinary grammar, with all the important principles of Greek Syntax. He assures us, that no pains have been spared to make it, what it professes to be, a complete guide to Greek Prose-Composition.

10.—*The Works of Horace*, with English Notes, critical and explanatory. By Charles Anthon, LL.D., Professor of the Greek and Latin Languages in Columbia College, and Rector of the Grammar School. A new edition, corrected and enlarged, with excursions relative to the wines and vineyards of the Ancients; and a life of Horace, by Milman. New-York: Harper Brothers, 82 Cliff-st. 1850.

This is an elegant and complete edition of our favorite author, Horace. It would be a useless for us to say anything in its praise as it would be to "paint the lily." It it already in the hands of every collegian and school-boy throughout the country, and we have no doubt, will continue to be so, as long as good taste and sound scholarship are appreciated in the world.

11.—THE EDITOR.*

In a comfortless room an Editor sat,
In darkness, in silence and sorrow:
Not a crown to his soul, save the crown of his hat,
With a very bad fracture apparent in that,
Nor a friend from whom he could borrow.
And sadly he gazed on the rusty old grate,
As he muttered a curse on his hapless fate.
With none to assist, and none to save,
His soul was as dark as the gloom of the grave,
As he mournfully mused of the morrow.

For all, too well, this Editor knew,
That to-morrow, the bill for his board was due,
With the *devil* to pay, and his wash-woman, too.

His dress was a suit of rusty black,
His coat he had worn a year.
Old papers, paste, a lamp with a crack,
An old arm chair, with a delicate back,
A rickety table near,
A handleless mug,
And a water-jug
Were his scanty furniture.

Thus sate he in his cheerless room,
To which the twilight lent its gloom:
At length, with a desperate air,
As if to bid all troubles cease,
He fixed himself in his rickety chair,
With heels upon the mantel-piece.

Yet still he mused: but visions bright,
Upon his mind are gathering now,
Like stars arising in the night;
And from his breast and off his brow,
The gloom is fading fast,
As on his fancy vivid grow,
The pictures of the past;
Whilst *memory* bids her genii roll
The weight of *manhood* from his soul.

* By Samuel R. Walker, of New-Orleans.

He dreamed: 'Twas of his childhood's home,
And of those charmed and happy days,
Remembrance never parteth from,
But clingeth to, whilst life delays.
He dreamed:—He was again a child;
Familiar tones were on the air,
Again on him a mother smiled,
He listened to her prayer.
The merry laugh of sisters dear,
Made music to his dreaming ear.

And now he strolled yon rippling stream,
To draw the trout with skillful hook,
As 'neath its arching oaks he'd dream
Away the day, o'er some dear book.
And now he views each early scene,
The tall church spire, the village green,
The tavern standing near,
The elms that grew beside the rill,
The old white school-house on the hill,
The play-grounds in its rear.

And in his dreams he'd often smile,
When he recalled the pranks so droll,
That did his idle hours beguile:
How once the Deacon's pipe he stole,
And it with powder loaded!
How awfully the Deacon swore!
A thing scarce ever known before—
When the little thing exploded—
And what a clamor there uprose
Amongst the congregation,
Because he *blew* the Deacon's nose,
Almost from its foundation!

* * * * *

A change, and lo! the garden spo
That bloom'd behind his father's cot,
Where mournfully the willows wave
Their branches o'er his mother's grave.

'Tis past. And hard indeed it seem'd
To wake and know he only dream'd.
"Ah, well!" he said, as he slowly arose,
And hastily glanced on his threadbare clothes,
Whilst a tear-drop crossed the bridge of his nose:
"Things at their worst must mend,
"For long is the lane that has no turn,
"And longer that has no end."

12.—MAGNETISM AND THE WINDS.

Lieut. Maury's ingenious and able treatise on the probable relation of magnetism, and the circulation of the atmosphere, prepared as an appendix to the astronomical observations, has been kindly sent us by the author. After prosecuting a severe scientific scrutiny and with the aid of circular letters sent throughout the valley of the Mississippi, which confirmed the fact, that the south-west are the rainy winds, he concludes with the remark:

"Though it be not proved that magnetism is the power which guides the storm from left to right, and from right to left, which conducts the moist and the dry air each in its appointed paths, and which regulates the "wind in his circuits"—yet that it is such a power, is rendered so very probable, that the onus is now shifted, and it remains not to prove, but to disprove, that such is its agency."

13.—NECROLOGY.

It is with pain that we have to announce, since our last, the deaths of two individuals, who, for their valuable services, have long maintained a high reputation in the country.

JOHN W. MONETTE was the author of that most invaluable work, which had cost the labor of twenty years, "The History of the Valley of the Mississippi." A new edition of which, greatly enlarged and improved, he was on the eve of issuing from the press. He also contributed many valuable papers to the pages of our review upon western subjects. He died on his plantation, in the Parish of Madison, La., on the first of March last, from a disease of the brain. A friend has promised to prepare for our next, a biographical sketch.

JOHN W. SKINNER, the Editor of the Plough, Loom and Anvil, has an American reputation for his distinguished services to the agricultural community, running back to the early part of the present century. More lately he was known from his connection with the Farmers' Magazine, published for several years in New-York. No man could have been more assiduous and devoted in the performance of his duties; and although we have differed with him radically upon points of policy, we have always urged the encouragement of his works as of public interest and value. Mr. Skinner was for 20 years Post-master at Baltimore, and under Harrison's administration, Assistant Post-master General. Only in the last number of his magazine, he was congratulating himself upon the bright openings which had dawned

upon his fortunes. In a few days, sudden and painful death blighted all—and this is life.

"Wave flows on wave,
But the sea dries not ————
We sigh,
Pause for awhile, and murmur—*All* must die,
Then rush to pleasure, action, sin once more."

14.—CHARLESTON MEDICAL COLLEGE.

We are delighted to observe in the *Courier* a statement, showing a condition of unprecedented prosperity in this institution. In speaking of the last graduating class, the dean, Dr. Frost, introduces the interesting fact, that, of the very large number included, but a single known instance occurs, where collegiate or academical advantages have not been enjoyed. No other school in the Union can, we believe, show such a result, and it speaks volumes in favor of Southern literary advancement. These students were from South Carolina, North Carolina, Virginia, Georgia, and Alabama.

15.—TO RECLAIM RED RIVER LANDS.

J. A. Regan has sent us the manuscript of a proposal he intends making to the legislature of Texas, to be allowed to reclaim the Red River lands of that state, by turning the waters of the river into canals, communicating with the rivers of Texas, and ultimately into the Gulf of Mexico. We have not examined the proposition, but simply state it. The condition is, that a grant be made to him of every alternate section of the reclaimed lands, and the work will be executed in seven years.

16.—AGRICULTURAL ITEMS.

1. We take pleasure in calling attention to the mineral paint invented by Mr. Blake, of which C. Sheldon, of New-Orleans, is agent. It is perfectly fire and water proof, and is the very thing to coat sugar-houses, water-cisterns, etc.

2. *A Draining Pump.*—Our friend Wm. Lebby, of Charleston, S. C., has at last succeeded in bringing into successful operation a pump of this description, whose power is really marvellous, a model of which he exhibited last year at the Charleston Fair. We recollect several years ago conversing with him upon the subject, and witnessing his early experiments. This matter of pumps would seem almost hereditary in the family. It was no small part of our boyhood's pleasures to witness the ingenious devices of another of the Lebbys, also a boy, in torturing water by mechanical applications. We recollect, once he had invented, or at least thought so, a curious and novel rotary pump, and we thought he had mechanical genius enough to invent almost anything short of perpetual motion, or the quadrature of the circle. But to return to the Draining Pump:

"The pump elevates the water five feet from the surface of the pool, in which it is placed, and discharges it at the rate of five thousand gallons per minute. It is worked by a five horse engine, at a very moderate pressure, and results, proportionate to an increased size of the machine, and the application of greater power, can be attained, both as regards the quantity of water discharged, and the height to which it can be carried. The principle of the pump is the reversal of the action of a Turbine wheel, revolving horizontally on the axis of a shaft, to the upper end of which the motive power is applied; and the whole astonishing force which it exerts, depends, as far as we understand it, upon the centrifugal power of the Turbine wheel. The machine is, therefore, a very simple one, and on that account peculiarly adapted to agricultural purposes. The price of a pump, of the capacity and dimensions above stated, will not, we understand, exceed three hundred dollars."

17.—THE ANCIENT BELLES OF FLORIDA.

Mr. Simms, in his late beautiful historical romance of the Huguenots in Carolina, which he has quaintly entitled the *Lily and the Totem*, thus graphically paints the early flowers of the Southern forests:

"A rather scanty robe of white cotton, concealed, in some degree, the bosom, and extended somewhat below the knees. Around the necks of several were hung thick strands of native pearls, partially discolored by the action of fire, which had been employed to extricate them from the shells. Pearls were also mingled ingeniously with the long tresses of their straight, black hair; trailing with it, in not unfrequent instances, even to the ground. Others, in place of this more valuable ornament, wore necklaces, anklets, and tiaras, formed wholly of one or other of the numerous varieties of little sea-shells, by which, after heavy storms, the low and sandy shores of the country were literally covered. Strings

of the same shell encircled the legs, which were sometimes of a shape to gratify the nicest exactions of the civilized standard. The forms of our Indian damsels were generally symmetrical and erect; their movements at once agile and graceful—their foreheads high, their lips thin, and with a soft, persuasive expression, inclining to melancholy; while their eyes, black and bright, always shone with a peculiar forest fire, that seemed happily to consort with their dark, but not unpleasing complexions. Well, indeed, with a pardonable vanity, might the people call them, 'The Daughters of the Sun.' He had made them his by his warmest and fondest glances. These were the women, whose descendants in after days, as Yemassees, and Muscoghees, and Seminoles, became a scourge of so large a portion of the Anglo-American race."

18.—HILDRETH'S HISTORY UNITED STATES.

History of the United States of America. By Richard Hildreth. Vol. IV. New-York: Harper & Brothers. 1851. The volume before us is the first of a new series, the author having previously published three others upon the Colonial and Revolutionary times. He has here to deal with the period which immediately succeeded the adoption of the Constitution, and contemplates, in two volumes more, to bring the whole subject, through the administration of Adams, the downfall of the federalists, the transfer of power to the republicans, the elevation of Madison, etc etc., to the administration of Monroe, in which the old party lines were greatly worn away, or entirely obliterated.

We have read this first volume, which is entirely occupied with the administration of Washington, with very close attention, and much instruction, from the novelty and amount of information embodied; but so keen and bitter are the prejudices and antipathies of the author towards the South, and everything Southern; towards Mr. Jefferson, and the whole republican party afterwards, and so delighted is he to dwell upon any points which may be tortured to their disadvantage, that we can place but little confidence in his integrity as a historian, and none whatever in his feelings as a man. Never before was history so prostituted to gratify personal or party malevolence.

We had marked a great many passages for comment and condemnation, but space and time do not now admit. Those which relate to the slave discussion are particularly obnoxious, and no opportunity escapes of indulging a sneer at the expense of the South, her institutions and her statesmen. Nothing but rottenness he finds in this Denmark. One extract we should like to give, from the speech of Mr. Scott, of Pennsylvania, (who, it would seem, was the original author of the "higher law" doctrine,) made in the first Congress under the Constitution, upon the subject of slavery. Mr. Hildreth reports the debate in such a manner as commits him to an approval, or at least we have no evidence of his disapproval, of the odious sentiments of the speech. In fact, he has introduced it immediately after his remark: "The *patience* of some of the Northern members, at length, began to give way," etc.

The work is written with vigor, the arrangement is good, the period embraced one of deep interest, and the facts numerous and interesting.

19.—*Lavengro;* the Scholar—the Gipsy—the Priest. By George Borrow, author of the "Bible in Spain." New-York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 82 Cliff-st. 1851. J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans.

We can recommend this work to all who are fond of the marvellous. It fully sustains the reputation which the author has acquired by his previous publications. His descriptions are lively and graphic, and the moral tone is excellent.

20.—*Foreign Reminiscences, by Henry Richard Lord Holland*—edited by his son, Henry Edward Lord Holland. New-York: Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff-st. 1851.

This is an interesting book to those who like to know something about the intrigues of Courts, and anecdotes about Napoleon the Grand, and Talleyrand the veracious. We had never suspected, before Lord Holland had told us, that Talleyrand's *forte* was *veracity*.

21.—*Nile Notes of a Howadje.* New-York: Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff-st. 1851.

An interesting dreamy book, written in the genuine Oriental *prose-poetic* style.

22.—*Malleville*, a Franconia Story, by the author of the Rollo Books. New-York: Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff-st. 1850.

23.—*Wallace;* a Franconia Story, by the author of

24.—*The Rollo Books*. New-York: Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff-st. 1850.

These are instructive and entertaining little books, by Jacob Abbot, an author who has acquired a deserved popularity by his series of interesting volumes for the education of youth. We cordially recommend them.

25.—*Consuelo;* by George Sand, translated from the French by Fayette Robinson. Four volumes in one. New-York: Stringer & Townsend, 222 Broadway. 1851.

This is considered to be the masterpiece of Mme. George Sand, one of the most remarkable women of the age. Like most French novels, its moral tone is anything but elevated.

26.—*Mississippi Scenes, or Sketches of Southern and Western Life*. By Joseph B. Cobb, of Longwood, Miss. 1851. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. New-Orleans: J. C. Morgan.

The work is moulded upon the plan of the "Georgia Scenes," and dedicated to their author, Judge Longstreet. Many of the stories have been told before, over the signature of Rambler, in the Mississippi papers. They possess quite interest enough to sustain the reader's attention, and we have no doubt they will enliven many a tedious hour in the Southwest. The writer is a Georgian by birth, and we therefore regret his introducing the story of the boy Joe, on page 92, which might do very well for the sickly sentimentalist of the North. We have seen more misery from the separation of *white* parents and children, dictated by the stern laws of necessity, than we have ever seen from *black*, and this is universal Southern experience. Mr. Cobb gives several interesting stories, showing the devotion of negroes to their owners, from which we extract one:

"FIDELITY OF A SLAVE.

"It was a delightful, calm, summer evening, and the family had just taken an airing around the environs of the city in their carriage. As they alighted on their return, the nurse happening to meet them with the youngest child, a lovely little girl, in her arms, obtained permission to ride out a short distance to amuse the infant. No one else went, as the horses were thought to be perfectly gentle, and as all confidence was placed in the driver's care and skill. But it happened, in descending a steep hill which arose beyond the river on which the little city was situated, that a breast-chain broke, and the carriage being pushed suddenly upon the horses, they started off at a furious gait, and evidently in a fright. The bridge was to be passed, and the faithful driver, more alarmed for his precious charge than himself, shouted to the nurse with trembling voice that he had lost all control over his horses. The honest creature did not hesitate, but took her resolve in a moment. With wonderful self-possession, which could have been inspired by nothing short of her devotion to her owners, and their beloved offspring, and, as the only possible chance, she hastily unfastened the door, and then turning so as to make sure of alighting on her back, at the same time holding the infant at arms' length above her, that it might thus escape the slightest jar, she threw herself out with a spring, perfectly regardless of everything but the safety of her master's child. Her plan succeeded; for several gentlemen who witnessed the whole affair, running up to her aid immediately, discovered that the infant was entirely unhurt, though the devoted nurse had sustained severe injury. Fortunately, the horses were stopped in time to prevent any serious accident; and afterwards, when the same gentlemen called to congratulate the distinguished father on the child's escape, they declared to him that he possessed a treasure of priceless value in this devoted nurse—a fact of which he was, by the by, fully aware."

27.—LETTERS FROM THREE CONTINENTS.

We noticed in our last, the letters of Matthew F. Ward, Esq., written from different points of the Old World, and have more lately given them a closer perusal, from which it is impossible to rise without forming a high notion of the intelligence and ability of the author. We trust that his future labors may not be grudgingly expended in the cause of letters. The following we have thought possesses sufficient general interest to be extracted from the many good things in the volume:—

"THE BAZAARS OF CONSTANTINOPLE."

"My heart beating high with expectation,

I hastened to these celebrated marts of Eastern luxuries. I entered, and all the gorgeous illusions of fancy at once faded into a dark covered passage, whose lofty arched roof was supported by stone pillars, and along whose narrow sides were ranged the shelves, which were crowded with the goods of the petty merchants who occupied the bazaar. Each partition of shelves is closed at night by two large shutters hung on hinges, one of which, during the day, is hoisted above, and the other is let down on a stone parapet, which runs along both sides of the passage, and forms a low counter, upon which is squatted the merchant, and upon which the purchasers usually seat themselves whilst bargaining for his goods. Most generally in his shelves, about twelve feet long, and his counter, from which he rarely descends, about four feet wide, consist the *entire* shop of the Turkish merchant, possessed, as I had imagined, of countless treasures. His stock in trade is composed of striped mixtures of cotton and silk from Damascus—of Persian silks, which are but sorry imitations of Cashmere shawls—of numerous importations from Europe, of inferior silks, muslins, and other articles of ladies' apparel—of handkerchiefs and napkins for the table, worked in colored worsted—of gaudy caps for the side of the head—and sashes and bags richly embroidered in gold, which, being tastefully arranged about his little shop, give it a gay, showy appearance. Such articles as these, stowed away in narrow little cribs, ten or twelve feet by four, were all I could discover to represent those luxurious splendors of the bazaars, of which modern tourists so enthusiastically rant. The bazaars are only lighted by windows in the side of the lofty roof, which, although they afford a slanting indistinct light, very favorable to the good appearance of rather ordinary goods, do not dispel the general gloom of the large passages; these passages, some eight or ten feet wide, being as rudely paved as the streets, and having in their centre a gutter, down which, of a rainy day, flows a little torrent of liquid filth. I could not but think, while groping my way through a dense crowd, over their very rough and somewhat dirty *floor*, how vastly inferior, in elegance, both of goods and accommodation, were the far-famed bazaars to Stewart's or Raphael's; yet books have never been written in praise of either. But, although the bazaars are so lamentably deficient, both in elegance and comfort, yet they are as full of novel and curious things as Mr. Oldbuck's antiquarian collection; and in wandering amidst the thousand and one rare sights of their almost endless passages, that branched off in every direction, like the intricate avenues of some grand cavern, I have managed to spend most delightfully some four or five days."

28.—*The Moreland Cottage.* By the author of Mary Barton.

29.—*London Labor and the London Poor.* By Henry Mahew.

30.—*Time, the Avenger.* By the author of the Wilmingtons.

These are late tales and novels from the prolific and splendid press of Harper & Brothers, and are delivered us by J. B. Steel, Bookseller, of New-Orleans.

31.—*Josephine.* By Grace Aguilar.

32.—*Kickleburgs of the Rhine.* By W. M. Thackeray.

33.—*Warwick Woodlands.* By Frank Forrester.

34.—*The Jenny Lind Songster.*

Cheap publications from Stringer and Townsend, of New-York, through our neighbor, J. C. Morgan, of New-Orleans. They make capital light reading for the summer for steam-boats and rail-roads.

SLAVERY AND LIBERIA.

35.—*Essay on Slavery.* By Thomas R. Dew.

36.—*Annual Report Colonization Society,* 1851.

37.—*Mr. Gurley's Report on Liberia.*

We are indebted to a friend in Virginia for Professor Dew's letters on Slavery, which we have long desired to obtain, and which we shall republish in parts in our Review for some months to come. No argument was ever more conclusive in favor of the South than this, and the work being nearly out of print, deserves to be perpetuated.

We have the Colonization Society, and Liberia papers, under consideration, and they will enable us, with a mass of other documents, to prepare one or two elaborate articles upon the subject, to appear in our pages in the next two or three months. We have no prejudices. Our object and purpose is a fair investigation, to whatever it may lead. We have many dear friends alike among the friends and the opponents of the Society. It is with pain that we find some of them yielding every point for which the South has so long contended. To think that our old friend, and guide and pastor, Dr. Fuller, who had battled so gallantly with Wayland in defence of the South, should at last be heard in the Colonization Society delivering a speech, which the Society itself,

in a note, is obliged to dissent from, in the fear it will irretrievably ruin their prospects at the South! Great God, it is time to pause and be serious when we hear a southern man, and a leader, use such language as this—"*Does not a sacred duty to Africa and the salvation of this country—truth, justice, love, require that Congress should be ready to interpose not only to deport, but to redeem—to* PURCHASE *the slaves of those who are willing to engage in an arduous, tedious, but most sublime undertaking?*" QUEM VULT DEUS PERDERE, ETC., ETC.

38.—*The Romish Confessional:* or, the Auricular Confession and Spiritual Direction of the Romish Church, by M. Michelet. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson.

39.—*Nobody's Son:* or, The Life and Adventures of Percival Maberry. Philad'a: A. Hart.

40.—*The Plays of Shakspeare.*—Phillips, Sampson & Co., Boston: Titus Andronicus, Julius Cæsar, Henry V., Troilus and Cressida, King Henry IV., Antony and Cleopatra, King Henry VI., King Richard II., King Henry VIII., Cymbeline, Timon of Athens. This splendid work should meet with universal encouragement. The plates are beautiful specimens of art—the letter-press perfect.

The books which we mentioned in our last as from Blanchard & Lea, have not as yet come to hand.

41.—NOTES.

One of our agents in Mississippi writes: "There is no state in the Union where the peach, the pear and apple grow to greater perfection than here, and none where the peach lasts so long. Whilst at Vicksburg, I visited Col. Hebron's plantation, who has devoted 125 acres to the cultivation of fruit. I have never seen the peach-tree so healthy in any part of the Union. He has 4,000 peach-trees nearly matured, 1,000 bearing apple-trees, 1,500 pear-trees, 300 of which are bearing, besides great varieties of plum, fig," &c.

Professor J. W. MILES has favored us with a copy of his Address before the graduating class of the Charleston College, on the 23d of February, 1851. Its tone is elevated, and matter logical and instructive. Professor Miles has one of the most powerfully metaphysical minds in the country, as his late work upon philosophical theology evinces. The Charleston College may well take pride in his fame.

We have received from A. Hart, (late Carey and Hart,) Philadelphia, a valuable work on PLANK-ROADS, by Wm. Kingsford, of New-York, with some useful addenda. We shall make some extracts from it in our future numbers, in the way of notes, to Mr. Gregg's able article upon the subject, now on our table. We regret not having space to insert any of it this month.

CHARLES GAYARRE, Esq'rs work upon Louisiana, will be largely noticed by us next month. The first volume has already been issued, and the second is ready for the press.

We remind our readers that Mr. Kendall's "*Views on the Mexican War,*" which we noticed last month, have been received in New-Orleans. The enormous expense which has been incurred, and the splendid manner of the execution, ought to bespeak for the work a large patronage.

NEW-ORLEANS AND NEW-YORK STEAMERS.

At last we have the prospect of a speedy, regular and certain communication between these great cities, by a line of steam-ships, wholly disconnected from any other business whatever. This is what New Orleans has long wanted. There has been too much uncertainty and too little accommodation, to say nothing of periodical interruptions, in the way the old line managed it. We herald the change as a great public benefit, and doubt not there will be the most liberal encouragement offered. There is no mode of reaching the North which presents anything like the same advantages. The new steamers are the *Union* and the *Winfield Scott*—the former commanded by Captain Budd, a southern man by birth and feelings, and a gentleman well known to the traveling public of the South. We wish the company all success.

42.—EDITORIAL ITEMS.

The continuation of our Texas Story—"*The Regulator*," was unavoidably crowded out of the present number, but will appear in our next. We have also received another number of Mr. Chilton's able papers upon *Mississippi*, and a very valuable article upon the *Management of Negroes* upon estates, from the pen of a planter of Mississippi, which will appear next month. Our friend, Judge Monroe, of the Louisiana Law School, has had the honorable degree of LL.D. conferred upon him by the University of Louisville. Lieut. Forbes, of the Royal Navy, England, has published a work on Africa, in which he charges the Liberians with holding many negroes in slavery. We have sent for the work. The posthumous papers of Mr. Calhoun will soon be issued from the Charleston press, together with a complete edition of the speeches of that great man. The work will be embraced in five or six volumes, and is published at the expense of South Carolina. A. G. Pickett's History of Alabama will appear in a few months, from the same press, with many handsome illustrations. We agree in the words of a contemporary:

"We have long known Col. Pickett's devotion to literature—his zeal, liberality and perseverance in the acquisition of knowledge—his patient industry in condensing and arranging his materials, and the high order of his mind; and we expect from him a work which will be of great historical interest, and particularly acceptable to the people of the South-west."

R. G. BARNWELL, Esq., who has been for some months assistant editor of the Review, and has contributed several able and valuable articles to its pages, will travel during the following year in the states of *South Carolina, North Carolina and Virginia*, for the purpose of stirring up the goodly denizens of these ancient commonwealths in the cause of the Review, which at present numbers but a very few supporters in that quarter of the Union, where Northern magazines and books of every kind, supply almost the entire demand. In introducing Mr. Barnwell, it can hardly be necessary for us to say, that:

1.—The Review is altogether a *Southern work*, originated and conducted by Southern men, published at the South, treating of the South, and in no respect local to any part of it. Though NEW-ORLEANS and CHARLESTON are the head-quarters of its operations, it is issued *simultaneously in all the cities of the southern states, from Baltimore to Galveston and St. Louis*. Every part of this field is entirely occupied in every thing that regards their industrial progress, without excluding the general facts of Northern, American, and European industry.

2.—The Review occupies a ground which does not interfere with any work in the Union. It is the only one of the kind in the South, and is rather a *co-laborer* than rival of Mr. Hunt's Magazine, which, published at the North, cannot be supposed so well informed in regard to our peculiar affairs. The works are supplemental to each other.

3.—The Review has no politics, touches upon no party discussions, and has but one great and exclusive argument to conduct—*the prosperity, social and industrial, of the Southern States, and their entire independence in this behalf.*

It is believed that the friends of the South will everywhere rally around Mr. Barnwell, and that through his labors and theirs, several thousand new subscribers will be added to our lists very soon. The expenses of the work are enormous; and if our friends in those old states of the sea-board, where we were reared, will do as well for it as the generous ones we have found in the South-west, the Review will speedily vie with the most prosperous ones of the North, if it does not eclipse them. Shall we have to appeal in vain for this, or will not the whole South rally around us, who have been the first to move; and who, after years of struggles and heavy losses, begin but the present year to see the clear light of day upon us?

Our hopes for the future are high, and we shall go on adding with untiring assiduity from month to month, every possible improvement to the Review, which now enters upon the *sixth year* of its existence.

Mr. BRABAZON, who has traveled for the Review during the past year in Arkansas and Texas, will now make a tour of the western and north-western states, and also in the northern and eastern states, for the purpose of obtaining advertisements and sub-

scribers to the Review. To the people of the West we have only to say, this work has an especial application to them, and embodies all of the results of their industry;—to those of the North we add, whilst the South sustains a thousand northern works, she meets with no reciprocity. Is this fair? As the Review presents a complete embodiment of southern industry and enterprise of every kind, to be had in no other quarter, should it not be interesting to northern men, who would really and truly know the resources and operations of this section of the Union? Those who are doing business here, and their number at the North are thousands, might find it to their interest in many ways to support a Southern work of the kind. Its very large circulation at the South greatly enhance its *advertising* facilities. To the manufacturers of the North the work will have great value, in showing, as it does, most minutely, every thing that relates to the progress of every department of *manufactures in the South.*

NEW BOOKS FROM J. C. MORGAN.

Since closing our book-notices, we have received *Gayarre's History of Louisiana*, which will be noticed fully next month; *Mary Bell*, a Franconia Story; *Bertie*, a Humorous Novel, by Gregory Seaworthy; *Polly Pea-Blossom's Wedding*, and other tales, by Hon. J. B. Lamar, and R. M. Charlton; *Mount Hope*, or Philip of the Wampanoags, an Historical Romance, by G. H. Hollister; *Harper's New Magazine* for April, with fine illustrations of the London Fair; *Field-Book of the Revolution*, part 12. These books are from Harper Brothers, and A. Hart, and are for sale by our neighbor, J. C. Morgan, from whom we acknowledge the receipt of all the valuable school *classical* books of Anthon, noticed in this and the last number. His store is at 22 Exchange Place, New-Orleans, and all orders from the country will be promptly supplied.

Your friend & sort.

C. Le Baron

OF MOBILE, ALA.

Engraved by Simon & Sons expressly for the Bowe Review New Orleans.

No 8.

Printed by [illegible]

Yours from my soul

C. Le Baron

Printed by Trubner & Co.

DE BOW'S

SOUTHERN AND WESTERN

REVIEW.

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VOL. X., O. S.....2d SERIES, VOL. IV., No. 6.—3d SERIES, VOL. II., No. 6.

ART. I.—THE STATE OF MISSISSIPPI.*

MOVEMENTS OF ELLICOTT, WILKINSON AND GAYOSO—ORGANIZATION OF MISSISSIPPI TERRITORY.

THE Spanish king ordered liberal grants of land to be offered to all emigrants from the territories now comprising Kentucky and Tennessee, to the Spanish provinces. Under this liberal system, numerous settlements were made by Americans in Upper Louisiana, as well as in the province east of the Mississippi River, and below the mouth of the Yazoo. The Spanish governor, in the meantime, was instructed to use all means of effecting a political union between the Spanish provinces and the western people of the United States. This policy continued two years, and thus delayed all danger, during that period, of an invasion of Louisiana by the north-western settlers;—but, at the expiration of that time, Guardoquoi, the Spanish minister, suddenly re-enacted the revenue laws, and seizures and confiscations, fines and imprisonment, were recommenced with such rigor, as again to rouse the resentment of the western people, and render an immediate invasion of the Spanish provinces a popular measure.

An extensive conflagration occurred at this moment at New-Orleans, and the distress and want consequent upon it compelled the governor to release all prisoners, restore their property, and rescind all commercial restrictions, in order to induce the western traders to supply the city with provisions. At the same time donations of land were made to all emigrants; and many Americans, lured by this generosity, settled in the Natchez district and elsewhere within the Spanish territory.

The census of 1788 showed an aggregate population, in Louisiana and West Florida, of 42,611 souls, being an increase of 10,000 in three years. This included the importation of Acadians and Span-

* Continued from May No.

iards, before mentioned; the remainder were Americans. Of the whole population there were—free whites, 19,445; free colored persons, 1,701; slaves, 21,465.

In September, 1788, it became absolutely necessary for the federal government to require from Spain a full concession of the right, claimed by the western people, to the free navigation of the Mississippi. Accordingly, Congress resolved that "the free navigation of the Mississippi is a clear and essential right of the United States, and that the same ought to be considered and supported as such." The American ministers were charged specially to negotiate for the surrender of West Florida, near the Mississippi, and the whole eastern bank of the river to the sea, *provided* the free use of the river through Louisiana could not be otherwise obtained. But the Spanish ministers showed little inclination to relinquish any portion of this territory, and not only delayed all negotiation, but instigated the Creek and other Indian tribes to a violation of their treaties with the United States, and to acts of violence, with the view of preventing any future settlements within the South-western Territory. Spanish posts and garrisons occupied the country east of the Mississippi, as high up as Memphis, and the Spanish authorities had organized the militia of Louisiana, with the view of defending every position assumed by Spain against the United States. At the same time, large American forces were concentrated on the Ohio, and the Spanish governor had every reason to fear that an army, flushed with victory in the north-west, would descend upon the first spring flood of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers, and invade Louisiana. The President of the United States had himself authorized and encouraged preparations for such a conflict. At this juncture, Spain became embarrassed by her European wars, and dreading hostilities against Louisiana, intimated a disposition to settle the points in controversy; General Washington immediately dispatched Thomas Pinckney, as minister plenipotentiary to Madrid, and on the 20th day of October, 1795, a treaty was signed, adjusting all subjects of dispute. By this treaty, the 31st parallel of north latitude was recognized as the northern boundary of the Spanish possessions, and Spain agreed, within six months, to withdraw her troops and garrisons from the territory north of that boundary. It was further stipulated, that the people of the United States should use the port of New-Orleans as a place of deposit for produce and merchandise, for the space of *three years*, and export the same free of all duty. This treaty was duly ratified by the Senate of the United States, and the President commenced preparations to carry its stipulations into effect, such as surveying the boundary line, enforcing neutrality among the Indians, &c.

This treaty had the effect of arresting a scheme which the citizens of Georgia had conceived, of expelling all the Spaniards from the territory east of the Mississippi River, and north of the 31st parallel of latitude, and also led to the repeal of an act of the legislature of Georgia, incorporating the Mississippi Company, and granting millions of acres of land within the disputed territory. It will be hereafter perceived that this whole territory was afterwards ceded by Georgia to the United States, April 24th, 1802.

The treaty of Madrid provided for the appointment by Spain of a commissioner to meet one to be appointed by the United States, within six months after the ratification of the treaty, to ascertain and fix the northern boundary of the Spanish province, that is, the 31st parallel of latitude. The President of the United States, in due time, appointed Col. Andrew Ellicott as the American commissioner, and Don Manuel Gayoso de Sernos was also appointed commissioner of Spain, under the orders of Baron de Carondelet, governor-general of Louisiana. Gayoso was then governor of the Natchez district.

In September, 1796, Col. Ellicott left Philadelphia for Natchez, and obtaining at Pittsburg thirty woodsmen armed with rifles, descended the Ohio in a barge; but owing to low water and ice, he did not reach Natchez till the 24th day of February, 1797. Before this time he had been overtaken by an additional military escort of thirty men, but at the request of Gayoso, left the whole escort of sixty men at the Bayou Pierre. After an interview between Col. Ellicott and Gayoso, the latter reluctantly consented to fix the 19th day of March as the day on which both commissioners should repair to Bayou Tunica, with the view of ascertaining and defining the boundary.

Col. Ellicott hoisted the American flag on an eminence, near Fort Panmure, within the present limits of the city of Natchez, and ascertained by observation that his position was about 39 miles north of the 31st deg. of north latitude. The governor-general, Carondelet, was, in the meantime, duly notified of his arrival, as, by the terms of Gayoso's appointment, Carondelet was to be present, and direct the Spanish commissioners in ascertaining and defining the boundary. But Carondelet evaded the appointment on the plea of important business at New-Orleans, and tried to induce Col. Ellicott to visit that city. The American commissioner declined the invitation, and ordered his military escort, under Lieutenant M'Leary, from the Bayou Pierre to Natchez, at which point they arrived on the 15th March, '97. Having encamped near Col. Ellicott's flag, the commandant soon after formally demanded the surrender of Fort Panmure to the American troops. Gayoso, who had hitherto feigned preparations to abandon the fort, now suddenly returned all the stores and artillery into it *by night*, and placed it in a state of defence; he also, soon after, proceeded to strengthen the forts at Natchez and Walnut Hills, by reinforcements from New-Orleans. Upon a protest against these perfidious measures, by the American commissioner, Gayoso declared that they were prompted by apprehensions of Indian hostilities, and of an invasion of Louisiana by the British troops from Canada. In order to convince Col. Ellicott of the truth of the first pretext, Gayoso caused swarms of drunken Indians to parade with drawn knives and threatening gestures before the American camp, and in order to conciliate them, Colonel E. was compelled to distribute rations and presents among them. For the last pretext, there seemed afterwards to have been some foundation, as there is no doubt an invasion of Louisiana was contemplated by Canadians, and influential men in the United States, among whom

was a United States senator from Tennessee. But Col. Ellicott saw in these measures only a determination to postpone the surrender of the territory, under the hope that some circumstance might happen which would restore this valuable region to Spain. All hopes of inducing the western people to throw off their allegiance to the general government and unite with Spain, had not been abandoned. A Spanish agent was again sent to Kentucky to sound public men on this subject, and stir up disaffection to the United States in the West; and the death of General Wayne, by which General Wilkinson, who was supposed to be favorable to this design, had been advanced to the command of the Northwestern Territory, gave fresh encouragement to these hopes.

The American commissioner became much incensed, and an angry correspondence commenced between him and Gayoso. The people of the district, fearing that the Spaniards would not surrender the territory, shared in the excitement and indignation of the American commissioner. The latter maintained his position, anxiously expecting an advanced guard of American troops from Fort Massac; a detachment of forty men, descending from this point, under Lieutenant Percy Smith Pope, arrived at Walnut Hills early in April, '97, and encamped near the Spanish fort at that point. On the 17th April, Col. Ellicott having learned his arrival, required him to advance to his relief without delay; and on the 24th April, Lieutenant Pope, with his detachment, arrived at Natchez, and was escorted to the American camp by Lieutenant M'Leary's company.

Gayoso strongly remonstrated against the presence of the American troops, and urged their removal to several points; but the American commissioner resolved to maintain his position, and Lieutenant Pope proceeded to the completion of the entrenchments of his camp. He also strengthened himself by voluntary enlistments, and by the apprehension of some deserters from the north-western army, who were found among the Spaniards.

In a few weeks it was ascertained that the Spaniards had sent emissaries to the neighboring tribes of Indians, with instructions to excite their resentment against the American forces. This cause, together with the perfidy of the Spaniards in deferring the fulfilment of the treaty, greatly excited the people. There were now four thousand Americans residing north of the stipulated boundary, impatient for the departure of the Spanish authorities, and the establishment of the federal authority. Many were ready to capture Fort Panmure, and drive out the Spanish authorities by force. These citizens inhabited the region extending north from the boundary to Bayou Pierre, and thence east to the sources of this stream, and of Cole's Creek, St. Catharine, Hemochitto and Buffalo.

The governor-general endeavored to allay this excitement, by issuing a proclamation on the 24th of May, declaring that the country would be surrendered after the danger of British invasion had passed away. But this, instead of calming, inflamed the public mind to a still higher degree of excitement.

At length, Gayoso declared that he had received instructions

from Carondelet to remove the artillery and military stores from all the forts north of the stipulated boundary. Thus open violence was prevented until the 9th day of June, when an American citizen, a Baptist preacher, was seized by the Spanish authorities, and placed in the stocks, within the fort. The people flew to arms, and compelled the Spanish commandant, and his principal officers and their families, to take refuge within the walls of the fort. Military companies were immediately organized—officers chosen to command them—and, in a few hours, the Spanish authority was virtually overthrown.

At the same time, Lieutenant Pope issued an address, calling on all the citizens to assert their rights, and pledging himself to protect them from every act of hostility.

A large concourse of people met at Beach's, on the Nashville road, on the 20th day of June; and after free discussion, appointed a "committee of public safety," consisting of seven prominent men, to conduct future negotiations with the Spanish authorities. The consent of this committee was declared to be necessary to the validity of every Spanish edict.

On the 18th of June, Gayoso desired and obtained an interview with the American commissioner, at Captain Miner's house, to which place he made his way from the fort, secretly, through canebrakes and a corn field, to the back door, and thence to the parlor, in such a state of humiliation as deeply affected Colonel Ellicott. Here he met the committee—recognized their representative capacity—acceded to their demands of amnesty to the citizens who had revolted—and of their exemption from service in the Spanish militia, except in cases of riot or Indian hostilities. These concessions all tended greatly to allay the popular excitement.

Mistrusting the fidelity of one of the "committee,"* Colonel Ellicott persuaded the governor to dissolve it, and to authorize the election of a permanent one in its stead. Accordingly, a new committee of nine members was elected in July, by virtue of Spanish authority, to be "permanent" in its duration. This committee was the finishing stroke to Spanish authority and jurisdiction.

During the ensuing autumn, Col. Ellicott removed his camp to the present site of the town of Washington, seven miles N. E. of Natchez, and returned to Natchez on the 27th of September. On the 26th July preceding, Gayoso, having been appointed governor-general of Louisiana, departed for New-Orleans; but previously appointed Capt. Stephen Minor temporary commandant of Fort Panmure. Soon afterwards, Col. Grandpré was appointed lieutenant-governor at Natchez, but at the request of the permanent committee, never appeared there, and Capt. Minor continued to exercise the duties of that office. Har-

* The members of the first committee were, Joseph Bernard, Judge Peter B. Bruen, Daniel Clarke, Gabriel Benoist, Philander Smith, Isaac Gaillard, Roger Dixon, William Ratliff, and Frederick Kimball. Of these, F. Kimball was suspected. An active opponent of the measures of Colonel Ellicott, was Colonel Anthony Hutchens.

mony having been thus restored, Lieutenant Pope had retired with his command, to the more healthy position at Washington, as above related.

General Wilkinson having learned the delay of the Spanish authorities in evacuating the forts north of the boundary, dispatched Capt. Isaac Guion, a revolutionary officer of experience and sound sense, and enjoying the confidence of the President, with a detachment of troops, to assume the command at Natchez. He arrived in December, and assumed the command. At first he treated the Spanish authorities with respect, but discovering that, without any good reason, they were still inclined to delay the evacuation of the forts and the survey of the line of demarcation, he became impatient, and resolved to take the fort by assault. But on the 23d March, 1798, Fort Nogales, at Walnut Hills, was evacuated, and the troops descended thence to Natchez. Here they remained, studiously concealing the time of their departure; and Capt. Guion declared, that the first day of April should not witness the Spanish garrison within the fort.

On the 29th March, at midnight, the Spaniards sent their artillery and stores aboard their boats, and about four o'clock, on the morning of the 1st April, the troops marched from the fort to the river bank. Before daylight they had embarked, and had proceeded several miles on their voyage to New-Orleans. No farewell salute honored their stealthy departure. Col. Ellicott alone, suspecting their intention, rose early, and walking towards the fort, entered its open gates just after the rear guard had passed out of it, and from the parapet witnessed all their movements, till the whole flotilla was out of sight.

All cause for delaying the survey of the line of demarcation having been now removed, Gayoso appointed Capt. Stephen Minor and Sir William Dunbar commissioners of Spain, who, with Col. Ellicott, repaired to Bayou Tunica, six miles below Fort Adams; and on the 21st of May, 1798, having been joined by Governor Gayoso, they proceeded to mark the line as far as East Florida, the survey through which, owing to Indian disturbances, was not made till the following year.

In the meantime Congress had erected the territory, surrendered by Spain, into a territorial government, by the name of the "Mississippi Territory." Its boundaries were the Mississippi on the west, the 31st° of latitude on the south, a line drawn due east from the mouth of the Yazoo to Chattahoochee River on the north, and on the east by said Chattahoochee River.

Winthrop Sergeant, former Secretary of the North-western Territory under Governor St. Clair, was appointed the first governor of the Mississippi Territory. He arrived at Natchez on the 6th day of August, 1798, and on the 26th day of the same month, General Wilkinson arrived with the federal army.*

* Monette says, that the governor was accompanied by the territorial judges. This, it will hereafter be perceived, in Governor Sargeant's letters, is an error. The governor had not even a secretary, and wrote out with his own hand the archives of the territory.

The act of April 7th, 1798, organizing the Mississippi Territory, was very brief. It simply applied to the territory the act and ordinance establishing government in the North-western Territory, "except the last article of the ordinance," &c., which excluded

Governor Sargeant fixed his residence near Natchez, and proceeded to organize the federal government.

At this point, the archives of the State of Mississippi, now preserved in the office of Secretary of State, at Jackson, commence, and the next number of this history will be drawn chiefly from that authentic source.

Hitherto I have drawn my *material* from Monette, whose statements I found, on examination, to concur with those of other writers on the same subject, with the advantage of having the information contained in these different depositories collected into one. I have separated the matters connected with the territorial history of Mississippi from those relating to Louisiana, with which they were mixed up, and changed the order and the language in which they were narrated by Monette, only with the view of greater brevity and perspicuity.

ART. II.—THE REGULATOR: A TEXAS STORY.

CHAPTER III.

We have hitherto stated that the democratic friend of Maj. Otley, who was the benefactor of Carroll, had two sons, upon whom he bestowed the care of moral and intellectual training: the latter, the best the country could afford, and the former, such as sprang from his position in society—the gravest advice and the best example. The old Jeffersonian democrat was called "Short-lived Birch," from the promise, during a long life, that every year would be his last. His torrent of continuous talk was in striking contrast to his debilitated frame. He was a frail and delicate hydrant, perpetually pouring out an almost uninterrupted flow of conversation of the disputatious character. To those who took no delight in controversy, he was a living terror, notwithstanding he was regarded, aside from the din and terror of his ceaseless conversational display, as one possessed of eminent personal and private virtues. No one could contend with him, with any measure of success, comparable to that which attended the conflict with Maj. Otley. The Major had found out his assailable points and his sore places, and by dexterously touching them, with the hot iron of quiet, unmitigated sarcasm, from the employment of which the Major had the hardihood never to flinch, he managed to throw the kind Mr. Birch into a fit of the asthma; and during the interlude, would pour in a broadside, that would usually delight the spectators, and fill them with admiration at the skill of the logician. From this state of partial *hors du combat*, his democratic

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involuntary servitude. It further provided for the future division of the territory into two districts, at the discretion of Congress. It also saved to Georgia her right, and the right of any person or persons, to the jurisdiction or soil of the territory. It also prohibited the importation of slaves into the territory, from any port *without the limits* of the United States.

It does not seem that Georgia interposed any such objection to this act of legislation by the federal government over her territory, as Texas recently did to the establishment of a territorial government by federal authority, over that portion of New Mexico claimed by her. Yet the claim of Georgia to the soil was undisputed, while that of Texas was not.

antagonist would be finally restored, under the influence of his recovered volubility, which, like a steady and continued rain, finally brought him quietude and a full sail. But these important personages do not occupy very important places in this story, only so far as that Maj. Otley was the grandfather of Ellen Teadriver, and Mr. Short-lived Birch was the father of the two young gentlemen to whom we have referred, and of the younger of whom much has yet to be said. No two brothers were more unlike. Edmund, the elder, was a staid and respectable personage, who took to the ministry, settled in the town near which he was born, and became a valuable character. The other brother was the reverse of all this; he was wild, dissipated and frolicsome. Named William, by his parents, he was yet universally called "Short-lived Birch, Junior," for a very different and much less creditable reason than had given the name to his father. He received the name, because it was generally predicted that somebody would soon kill him, or that he would soon be hanged. Young Short-lived, or "Short-lived, Junior," as he was familiarly called, was very deficient in precise views of the moral law. He was fond of fishing, hunting, gaming, frolicing, and every species of wild adventure. We will give a specimen of one of his wild frolics:

He had been paying some marked attentions to a young lady, whose father lived within a few miles of the town. Upon one occasion, as he was entering this gentleman's house, he met him at the door, and told him to take himself off; that he did not wish him to continue his visits; "and if you do," said he, "I shall bring the general prediction in your case to a speedy fulfilment. Now, go sir, and never let your step enter this door again." Short-lived, Junior, departed, vowing vengeance. Assisted by some of his companions, who disguised themselves, he took occasion, some time after, as the gentleman was returning home from town, to be prepared for him, as he passed a retired part of the wood. They seized him, stripped him of his gentleman attire, clothed him in the habiliments of a lady, cut off his hair and the hair of the tail of his horse, and thus allowed him to proceed to his astonished family. Not being able to identify the parties, the gentleman kept the secret as best he could, and that was but poorly. Short-lived's indulgence in this disposition, after many successful freaks which caused his kind parents much distress and anxiety, finally entangled him in the meshes of the law, and made the atmosphere rather too warm for his entire comfort. He was allowed to rub through, however, upon condition that he would leave the country. This he did at once. He determined to go to the city of Mexico. It so happened that Maj. Otley, as well as his father, had acquaintance in that city with some of the merchants, and with some of the persons connected with the American embassy, then in that country. Young Short-lived, Junior, was furnished with letters of introduction. These letters were rare of their kind. Those honest and conscientiously scrupulous old village politicians, though moved to the desire to enable him to make a favorable presentation of himself in Mexico,—the one by those natural feelings which ever fill a father's bosom, and the other by considerations of liking for the old democrat,

similar in kind to those which the Duke of Wellington may be supposed to have entertained for the greater Napoleon, yet did not scruple to give him such letters as went against the stomach of his pride, while entering upon a new sea of the great world. One of these letters we give as a curiosity. It ran as follows:

"This will serve to introduce to your acquaintance Short-lived Birch, Junior, Esq., a young gentleman upon whom I should be pleased if you would bestow that attention and kindness which will not fail to be gratifying to his excellent father, to his respectable connections, and to the undersigned. The young gentleman is thought by some to be possessed of a good heart, and that is about all that can be said in his favor, *as far as I know*. He delights in fun and frolic, and is wild and reckless, and not to be relied upon in any undertaking requiring fidelity or business habits. He has done nothing in this country for himself, and much that he should be glad to have forgotten. Bestow upon him what care you can, and if you can be instrumental in making anything useful out of him, you will have the credit of doing what has never yet been done in his case before—and secure the gratitude of his friends."

With these letters, he started for Mexico. His father placed in his hands an amount of money, deemed sufficient by the old gentleman, if so disposed, to make a decent livelihood. He arrived there in due time, and was soon introduced into the society of that city. The most elevated society there, be it said, was not very refined or fastidious. Short-lived made himself agreeable, and enjoyed life swimmingly well. He very readily slid into those courses which accorded with the proclivity of his nature. He was a constant attendant at all the balls, fandangoes, and places of resort, to which he could gain access. Being an elegant dancer, and of a gay and lively disposition, and withal a well-made Yankee, as the Mexicans called him, he was by no means an unimportant personage in the gay saloons of that gay city. Indeed, he soon became the idol of more than one Signora. There was one place of resort, to which he was particularly attached. It was a ball-room, upon the ground-floor, beautifully laid with highly polished stone, in an old brick building, which had formerly been used as a residence for the young men who were preparing for the priesthood, but being inconvenient, as being too far from the Cathedral, it had been abandoned, and was now used for various secular purposes. This large room, being the largest, most elegant and coolest, was used, by the mixed assemblage of both sexes meeting there, for the purpose of dancing, smoking, and taking wine. Hence many of the better sort were in the habit of attending, and danced, smoked, or sipped wine, as their various fancies moved them. The violin and triangle were severally performed upon by very opposite characters. The violin was played by a very dark native, who seemed to have sprung from a very dark Aztec and yet darker Spaniard. The triangle was beat by a very white and very diminutive Frenchman, with black hair and curling locks. There was a lady who was a regular attendant here, and who seemed to have unusual pretensions, and who appeared to be particularly taken with the elegant Yankee. She was usually dressed in a sindon of rich and variegated colors, and had a young

and pretty Indian constantly at her side in the occupation, which was by no means a sinecurate, of plying a fan, at the close of every dance, in bringing down to the agreeable degrees of temperature her heated person. She was a large, portly and dashing woman. Her weight, it must be confessed, was over two hundred. She took great delight in dancing with Short-lived Birch, Junior, Esquire, whom she called "Signor Shot-live." The delights of conversation, of course, were much and greatly interrupted by the necessity for the intermediation of an interpreter. From all appearances, it was not long before he had evidently won the heart of the fat and dashing Signora. Translated compliments are necessarily flat. Flat as they were, they were indulged in by the parties until they became as plenty as blackberries. Mr. Short-lived Birch, Jr., was not disposed to avoid any kind of frolic that came uppermost, and her advances were met with corresponding love-tokens on his part. Every breath of sweet Mexican air which she expended for his benefit, was repaid by his good American lungs in loud admiration of her charms. She was usually attended by a dark Spanish mustached cavalier, as her escort, whose occupation in life was that of a sententiary, who commented upon the sentences of Peter Lorribard, to a chosen few, who sought wisdom in his sage counsels. Upon one occasion, as Mr. Birch was leaving the ball-room, flushed with his victories with the fat lady, the little, diminutive, pale-faced Frenchman, with the black hair and the curling locks, pulled him by the sleeve, and having drawn him aside, whispered in his ear: —"My friend, I shall tell you, *que le large* Spaniard, what has de big mustache and de rapier, *que est longe*, will, my friend, run it plumb through de body of yours, like noting—he will do that, my friend, *certainment*, if vous *dance* any more with the fat lady, *que est large*." Short-lived Birch, Junior, Esq., did not hesitate long for a reply. "You may tell your friend, my very good Frenchman, that if he has occasion to run his long rapier through my body, he is a much smarter lecturer upon the wise words of Peter, the divine, than I take him to be, and Short-lived Birch, Junior, Esq., as a much greater fool than he has the credit of." No! no! soliloquized Mr. Short-lived, as he proceeded on his way home—"I have no wish to have my bowels injured among these Choctaws, for any of your Mexican two hundred pounds of lard, and forty pounds of pomatum. No! no! Mrs. Hogshead, the disciple of Peter Lorribard can have you for me—that's clear!" A few days after this transaction, he found on his table a note from the American minister, requesting an interview with him at 11 o'clock the following day. Punctual to the appointment, he was at the hotel of the minister at the designated hour. The American representative thus addressed him: "Mr. Birch, I have been advised from a high source to say to you, that it would be safer for you to leave this city; and the advice does not seem to be so much dictated by anger as by kindness. I am directed to make you a very advantageous proposition. The government wishes to give you employment, by which it can be benefited, and your own fortune secured. The government is anxious that its distant provinces may be settled. You are offered a grant of five sitios, or five tracts of one league square, upon condition

that you procure one hundred families, together with a Catholic priest, to settle upon it. The province of Texas is to be the scene of your operations. Acting thus as an empresario, you may better the condition of many homeless families, and make a full fortune for yourself. A certain part of the expense of removal, and a certain part of the expense of their support in the necessaries of life for a specified time, I am authorized to say, will be borne by the government, upon the fulfilment of the condition of the grant." Though brave, the nerves of Short-lived Birch, Junior, Esq., had been a little—a very little unsettled on that memorable night, because he had heard and seen some little of the effects of the Spanish stiletto. He lost no time in accepting the offer, entering into the necessary bonds, receiving a small sum in advance, and making all haste for his departure. Mr. Birch was under the impression that he was indebted to the kindness of Mrs. Hogshead for this stroke of fortune. While he was in the act of leaving Mexico, his friend, the little diminutive, white-faced and curly-haired Frenchman, placed into his hand a large golden "Christ," with several diamonds of value set in it, as a memento from his fat friend. Mr. Short-lived Birch, Junior, Esq., hunted in his pockets for some token to send in return, but found the search ineffectual. He remembered that he had in his portmanteau a newspaper, published in the United States, in which he had observed some verses which he had admired; it was a copy of the Telegraph. Carefully folding it up in his best pocket handkerchief, he gave it to the little Frenchman *for her*, with many thanks for the crucifix, and with impressive instructions for her to learn to read the elegant newspaper by the time he returned. And so he took his departure. Before entire remembrance is lost of the fat lady, it is necessary here to say, that Mr. Short-lived Birch, Jr., had not been more than twelve months in Texas, when the following letter, in bad English, written from Mexico, was put in his hands:—"Mon dear Signor Don Shot-live,—I reed the elegant newspaper you send for to me—very well. The American man, Mr. Dirt, is very bad man—the verses I like very well to me. To see you is my very much wish—though you come, say you come easy—not tell, and I see you very glad. Beatriz Juana."—Mr. Short-lived Birch did not doubt but that the letter was from his fat friend, and the euphony of the name seemed rather to confirm this belief. Mr. Birch was a good deal mystified as to who Mr. Dirt could be. But Mr. Birch finally rested under the impression that the Mexican lady had happened to get hold of a copy of the Telegraph which did not speak in very flattering terms of Mr. Clay, and she had merely translated his name to Mr. Dirt. Mr. Birch, immediately on his arrival in Texas, visited his old friend, Col. Teadriver. By his advice he located his empresario grant in the neighborhood of the lands of Col. Teadriver, and thus they again became neighbors and friends. It was not a great while before Mr. Birch succeeded in procuring the necessary population, and was consequently a gentleman of large landed possessions. About this time Ellen Teadriver was seventeen years of age, of commanding figure, practical good sense, and great excellence of disposition. She was nevertheless a woman, with a woman's weakness united to a woman's excellence. Reared in a new

country, she could not have been expected to possess those band-box and boarding-house accomplishments of the fashionable world, where half of the elegance of the fine lady is due to the milliner, and half to the dancing-master. Ellen was a good country girl, who loved her father, and was obedient to her mother. Very soon after the arrival of Short-lived Birch, Junior, Esquire, in the neighborhood, Colonel Teadriver took occasion to have a conversation with his daughter in regard to him. "Ellen," said he, while seated in the cool of a summer twilight, in the portico fronting the house, with his arm around her person, and her left hand in his—"Ellen, my child, this gentleman, who has recently moved into the neighborhood, is one whom I have long known, and I cannot say that I have favorably known him. He is a young gentleman of better exterior accomplishments than you are in the habit of seeing, but he is, I fear, deficient in moral excellence of character, and to be guarded against, rather than encouraged. *I* should not be surprised, my child, if he should fall in love with you. I think nothing more likely; but I wish to guard you in such an event; and I must also, here, most positively put my fixed and unshaken prohibition upon anything of the kind with him." Ellen protested "that she had no idea that Mr. Birch had such a thought in his head in regard to her; that if he wished to marry, he would look for a wife in the states, where he could get one more to his taste than such a plain country girl as she was;" but the reply evidently indicated that the father's dictatorial manner of assuming sway in a kingdom peculiarly her own, had grated harshly upon her tender and susceptible heart, and the love of independent action in that department, which her heart taught her was undoubtedly her own. The Col. rather admired, than otherwise, the unreflecting, impetuous elements in the character of Birch, and had been instrumental in no small degree in softening the asperities of his nature, and leading him into safer paths than he otherwise would have pursued. The Col. had not acted without his host in the conversation with his daughter, for he was certain that he had discovered the germ of a growing attachment upon the part of Birch for Ellen. This attachment the Col. had taken the pains to discountenance in the most unequivocal terms. The Col. knew too much of the loose and unreflecting traits of his character, not to be well aware that happiness was not to be expected in a union where there were so few domestic virtues upon the one part. The Col. had the good sense to prefer to see her marry a young man of plain and unprepossessing exterior and small pecuniary advantages, with the development of the moral virtues, rather than the showy Birch, who was deficient in the latter. One of the chief sources of discontent which lay heavy at the heart of Col. Teadriver, and which made him chafe against the circumscribed nature of his circumstances, was, that Ellen would, per force, have to make choice from a circle of association not the most elevated or refined. For some considerable time there did not seem to be any mutuality of sentiment between Ellen and Birch; but the latter did not despair of being able, by degrees, to win the confidence of a young girl, isolated from all society except

among the uncultivated settlers of a new country. Birch did not disguise from himself the fact that he could expect no countenance from Ellen's father. Nor was the father wanting in distinctness and candor upon his part. He told Birch without reserve, that he had no objection to his company in the walk of a wild and stormy life in Texas, but that he was not willing, and could not be willing, to entrust the dearest thing that his heart treasured upon earth—the happiness of Ellen—into his keeping; that he should regard him as deficient in gratitude; that he should consider the prosecution of such a vain desire, so distasteful to him, as a deliberate purpose upon his part to sever all ties of intercourse between them; and that he did not doubt but that all efforts in that way would be vain, as Ellen was too good a girl and too obedient a daughter, to outrage his authority and disregard his wishes, as she would have to do, if she permitted the prosecution of such a thing. An impenetrable crust seemed to have been put upon the pie of his hopes in that quarter. The opposition of a father, thus sternly expressed, would, in this wayward world, in nine cases out of ten be an open sesamé to the daughter's heart. She might deny it; she might strive against it; but nature would plead for freedom in this unfettered department of her works. Ellen's heart instinctively whispered to her that she was of age—that her father ought not to have taken it for granted, that she was going to fall in love in opposition to his wishes, and that though she was disposed to be obedient, she did not like her obedience to be divested of its *voluntary* element. Ellen was disposed to be an obedient girl, but the impress of mother Eve within her hung heavily upon the skirts of her good resolutions. This very obedient and tractable sex, whom all men of course love to idolatry, in the affairs of the heart are very much disposed to do as you wish them, so long as you do not interfere with their prerogative of choice; and the father who hangs back, and who appears to be quiet while he is doing his best, *may* accomplish a little—but he who has the temerity to determine beforehand, and show the clovenfoot of his authority, will be pretty certain in the end to lament his misguided precipitancy. Had this seemingly antedated and anticipated prohibition not have been placed between her and Birch, it would probably have never entered into her head; but, like her mother Eve, what wonder if the forbidden fruit rose immeasurably in value, and became the fairest in the garden and the most desirable in the world. "Ellen," one day remarked Mr. Birch to her, as they were alone, "nothing in the world gives me more pleasure than to convince you how deeply I love you, were it not for the positive prohibition of your father." "Of course," replied Ellen to him, "you will, Mr. Birch, do no such *unpoetical* thing as that." Here a point of morals in this story arises, upon which we will pass our judgment and let others freely do the same. Our judgment is, that if Birch had not been a scoundrel at heart, he would not have made that speech under the circumstances. It was a sly, insinuating, hypocritical and base act. Be all this as it may, it was not long before he and Ellen were attached to each other, though she had never decidedly confessed it. He knew it, and she

knew that *he* knew it; and a love, budding, and blooming, and living under the cloud of the father's disapproval, and indulged but in looks and hidden moments, could not fail to become as deep and absorbing as the nature of the soil would permit. Things ran on in this way for a considerable time—the lovers loving—and the father, in the easy simplicity of his unsuspecting nature, blind to it. Upon one occasion, when Short-lived Birch and Ellen were thrown together alone, and out of the reach of observation, and after Mr. Birch had indulged in the warmest and most burning declarations of love for her—pouring his whole soul out in a stream of unmeasured tenderness and affection, and which she had drank in silently, as though its sound was essential to her very existence—after the close of a rapturous outlay of those words of love which breathe and burn, Ellen, summoning to her assistance all the resolute powers of her nature, thus addressed him: "However truant my eyes and my conduct may have been, Mr. Birch, by which you may have inferred that you were indeed dear to me, my lips have never yet made the confession, nor shall they, during the existence of my father's disapprobation. Not if my own death were to be the forfeit, will I ever do any act that will bring permanent sorrow to him. I wish, therefore, to say kindly, but with a serious mind, that I cannot find it in my heart to wound him, as deeply as I know I should wound him, if I were to marry or encourage a marriage in opposition to his wishes. If his opposition cannot be made to give way, I must learn to teach my heart to submit." Her bosom heaved, and her eyes were suffused with tears. Birch replied, "that he only looked forward to the future with an uncertain hope, it was true, but with a pure and loving hope;—that the present was happiness enough for him in the delight of loving her."

That night Birch tossed upon his pillow, while reflecting upon the probable chances of the Colonel's opposition relaxing, and upon various plans and suggestions by which it might be induced to give way. This was the burden of his thoughts for many months. Things were in this condition in the family of Col. Teadriver, when an accident happened which seemed to disarrange all their plans, and plunged Col. Teadriver and family into the wildest affright, consternation and distress. It was the sudden and unaccountable disappearance of Ellen. She had, in company with a small son of one of the neighbors, rambled down the banks of a small stream which ran near the dwelling, for the joint purpose of fishing and gathering the flowers which grew in luxuriant beauty and freshness in the native wilds of that country, rich in flowers of every hue and every variety. She had delayed her return home until the sun, setting gorgeously in the west, illumined the expanse of the heavens with the rays of his departing glory. While coming back burdened with flowers, and her bosom laden with the richer mosaic work of gay and melancholy thoughts, she discovered two horsemen in the act of approaching her. She, though somewhat startled, not alarmed, did not suspect that their design was to molest her. They dismounted, approached her, and by the time she became fully sensible that she was the object of

their search, they had seized, thrown a cloak around her, and lost no time, notwithstanding her struggles and screams, in placing her upon one of the horses, and firmly holding her there, in the stalwart grasp of an athletic backwoodsman. They bore her down the stream until it emptied into the river, and down the *banks* of the river until they became rocky and precipitous, and then dismounting, they partly carried and partly led her, until they reached the mouth of a cave, almost entirely concealed from view, removed the vines which hung over it, and entered. This cave seemed to have been constructed by nature for the abode of the outlaws of former times, as a place of safety and a place of security for their ill-gotten gains. The inside was large and commodious, and the entrance to it was hid by natural vines, which it became necessary gently to remove for the purpose of admission. Here Ellen found many things to soothe the distraction of her mind. She discovered an elderly lady, ready to assure her that every kindness and attention would be rendered, consistent with the certain security of her person; that in a very short time, doubtless, she would be ransomed, and return to her family. The sense of danger being removed, and the prospect of a speedy return certain, there was something in this wild and sudden departure from the ordinary track of events that accorded with the disquieted nature of her thoughts and emotions. She found it utterly vain to attempt an escape. That was the only constraint put upon her. She soon settled down with calm submission to her condition, and her mind sought and found support and consolation in its own exercise. She passed much of her time in quiet musings, and in the composition of pieces of poetry, calculated to soothe the anxiety of her heart. The Colonel left no means untried to find a clue to his daughter; nor was Mr. Birch backward in his manifestations of distress, or in his exertions to find some trace of the lost fair one. The country was scoured in every direction—still no trace of her could be discovered.

In about six or eight days after her departure, the Colonel took a letter from the post-office, stating that his daughter was in the hands of a band of robbers, and that she would be returned in safety to him, provided a sum of money, stating the amount, was deposited in a certain designated spot. The amount specified was so large that it placed the possibility of raising it entirely out of the question. That spot was watched, but no discovery made—no suspicious person ever approaching it.

At the close of an evening not long after the receipt of the letter, as the Colonel was sitting in his parlor, brooding over the affair with a chilled and wretched heart, a countryman came to the door, and told him that one of the most reputable elderly ladies, and one of the stoutest of the married men, upon the Birch grant, had been missing, and that it was stated in the settlement that they had gone to the states.

"Perhaps this, Colonel," said the informant, "may have some connection with your daughter Ellen."

The man departed as suddenly as he came. The Colonel meditated upon this intelligence for a considerable length of time. Could

Birch have been guilty of the abduction? There were many reasons for both sides of the conjecture. He knew that Birch was capable of doing such a thing; but he also knew that, though bad enough for such an undertaking, he thought him deficient in daring to meet the probable dangers which would almost certainly grow out of such a perilous action. Birch, he was satisfied, would not dare to meditate any injury to Ellen while *he* was alive. Could he advance any secret hope which he might entertain of winning the love of Ellen, or of securing his approval, by an act, which, if known, would render him despicable in her eyes, redouble his opposition, and justly merit at his hands a chastisement which he would be sure to receive? There was too much danger in the matter to tally well with the known character of Birch.

"If I only could become satisfied of his guilt"—and the color of the Colonel's eye changed at the thought, and the eyelid drooped, —"great parted creation!" But the considerations, on the other hand, which inclined him to give credence to the supposition, were neither few nor unimpressive. "If Birch is fool enough to be really in love under the circumstances, there is no telling what he may not do. They say that love will go where angels fear to tread, and *I* do not doubt it." If the fellow had the moral firmness, he might venture upon such a thing. Such an affair, if skillfully planned and successfully accomplished, might possibly result very favorably for him. He could, by the aid of his creatures, detain Ellen in some secure and secret place for some time. In the meanwhile, he could very safely and readily exert himself apparently to find her. He could allow her to remain there long enough to permit a hot pursuit to cool; and to enhance the value of the discovery, he could take some occasion, when he had none with him but a few of his chosen men, to rescue her, at an hour when Ellen would not know of the deception—conduct himself valiantly in the mimic strife, and return her with all the laurels of a victorious champion. The more the Col. reflected upon it, the more the doubt in opposition faded from his judgment. The rescue of Ellen was to secure her good feelings, and to disarm him of much of the force of his resistance The probability of the thing began to assume the shape of conviction. Many circumstances in the conduct of Birch, to which he had at the moment attached no importance, began to throw light upon the supposition, and to fortify the conviction. The result was, that the Col. wrought himself into a towering passion, and into a settled and firm belief that Birch was guilty. The Col. slept upon it that night. The morning found him prepared for action. He armed himself with two pistols, and finding Birch, requested him to accompany him in a walk. They happened to journey in the same direction which Ellen had taken when the abduction had occurred. The Col. was a man of too much of the "*savoir faire*"—too much of the knowledge of the world, and was wrought up to too high a state of mental power, to permit anything to escape him by word or action, to permit the unsuspecting Birch to divine or imagine the purpose, which, like a venomous reptile, lay coiled in folds

ony rigidity within his bosom. They had reached the bank of beautiful stream of water, near which Ellen had been seized. e Col. seated himself upon a log upon the margin of the stream. irch followed his example. As Mr. Birch closed the narrative of ome amusing incident, which he had told the Col. with a hearty laugh, the Col. thus addressed him, deliberately taking out his two pistols, and quietly and gracefully laying them in his lap before him: —"Mr. Birch, this moment is extremely important to both of us. You know that my judgment is habitually slow in arriving at any settled conviction. I never hasten precipitously to any conclusion. I presume you know enough of me to be well aware that I never resolve to act without deliberation, and that, having resolved, I am very apt to carry that resolution into effect. I have always endeavored, however the declaration may seem to be in opposition to many acts of my life, to live quietly and peaceably with my fellow men. But it is a part of my creed to believe that it is not the province of a gentleman to submit to wrong, insult or outrage." Mr. Birch here began a reply indicative of the high estimate which he had always entertained of the elements of the Colonel's character: but the Col. arrested his remark by saying—"In a moment, Mr. Birch; I shall finish in a moment; you may then reply. I have put you to the inconvenience, Mr. Birch, of coming with me to this retired spot, to put a close—a final close—to the torture of mind, and wear and tear of affection, which I have endured for over ten days. I am satisfied, from proofs in my possession, that you are the individual who has been guilty of the deep outrage that has fallen upon the peace of my family, and the deeper outrage upon the reputation of my innocent child. Now, sir, I demand her instantly at your hands. You must now inform me where she is, or your life, or mine, is the inevitable forfeit. Are you prepared to comply with my demand?" Mr. Birch's nerves were traitors to him and to his cause. So overpowering and manifest were his exhibitions of external guilt—so plainly had his unnerved nature painted the characters of guilt and remorse upon the whole bulk of the outer man, that, though willing in the moral deportment of his character to fabricate and utter a falsehood, his very quivering lips and chattering teeth made the incipient effort vain and impotent. He was wax in the hands of the stern and indignant father. By a few simple and direct questions, the Col. unravelled the thread of the story. IBRIDEX.

[To be concluded in our next.]

ART. III.—MANAGEMENT OF NEGROES UPON SOUTHERN ESTATES.

[We regard this as a practical and valuable paper for the planters, and hope that those of them who have been experimenting in the matter, will give us the results.]—EDITOR.

SOME very sensible and practical writer in the March No. of "The Review," under the "*Agricultural Department*," has given us an article upon the *management of negroes*, which entitles him to the gra-

titude of the planting community, not only for the sound and useful information it contains, but because it has opened up this subject, to be thought of, written about, and improved upon, until the comforts of our black population shall be greatly increased, and their services become more profitable to their owners. Surely there is no subject which demands of the planter more careful consideration than the proper treatment of his slaves, by whose labor he lives, and for whose conduct and happiness he is responsible in the eyes of God. We very often find planters comparing notes and making suggestions as to the most profitable modes of tilling the soil, erecting gates, fences, farm-houses, machinery, and, indeed, everything else conducive to their comfort and prosperity; but how seldom do we find men comparing notes as to their mode of feeding, clothing, nursing, working, and taking care of those human beings intrusted to our charge, whose best condition is slavery, when they are treated with humanity, and their labor properly directed! I have been a reader of agricultural papers for more than twenty years, and while I have been surfeited, and not unfrequently disgusted, with those chimney-corner theories (that have no practical result, emanating from men who are fonder of using the pen than the plough-handle) upon the subject of raising crops, and preparing them for market, I have seldom met with an article laying down general rules for the management of negroes, by which their condition could be ameliorated, and the master be profited at the same time. One *good article* upon this subject, would be worth more to the master than a hundred theories about "rotations" and "scientific culture;" and infinitely more to the slave than whole volumes dictated by a spurious philanthropy looking to his emancipation. For it is a fact established beyond all controversy, that when the negro is treated with humanity, and subjected to constant employment without the labor of thought, and the cares incident to the necessity of providing for his own support, he is by far happier than he would be if emancipated, and left to think, and act, and provide for himself. And from the vast amount of experience in the management of slaves, can we not deduce some general, practicable rules for their government, that would add to the happiness of both master and servant? I know of no other mode of arriving at this great desideratum, than for planters to give to the public their rules for feeding, clothing, housing and working their slaves, and of taking care of them when sick, together with their plantation discipline. In this way, we shall be continually learning something new upon this vitally interesting question, filled, as it is, with great responsibilities; and while our slaves will be made happier, our profits from their labor will be greater, and our consciences be made easier.

I would gladly avail myself of the privilege of contributing my mite to the accomplishment of this end, by giving my own system of management, not because there is anything novel in it—that it is better, or differs essentially from that of most of my neighbors—but because it may meet the eye of some man of enlarged experience who will necessarily detect its faults, and who may be induced

to suggest the proper corrections, and for which I should feel profoundly grateful. To begin, then, I send you my plantation rules, that are printed in the plantation book, which constitute a part of the contract made in the employment of the overseer, and which are observed, so far as my constant and vigilant superintendence can enforce them. My first care has been to select a proper place for my "Quarter," well protected by the shade of forest trees, sufficiently thinned out to admit a free circulation of air, so situated as to be free from the impurities of stagnant water, and to erect comfortable houses for my negroes. Planters do not always reflect that there is more sickness, and consequently greater loss of life, from the decaying logs of negro houses, open floors, leaky roofs, and crowded rooms, than all other causes combined; and if humanity will not point out the proper remedy, let self-interest for once act as a virtue, and prompt him to save the health and lives of his negroes, by at once providing comfortable quarters for them. There being upwards of 150 negroes on the plantation, I provide for them 24 houses made of hewn post oak, covered with cypress, 16 by 18, with close plank floors and good chimneys, and elevated two feet from the ground. The ground *under* and around the houses is swept every month, and the houses, both inside and out, white-washed twice a year. The houses are situated in a double row from north to south, about 200 feet apart, the doors facing inwards, and the houses being in a line, about 50 feet apart. At one end of the street stands the overseer's house, workshops, tool house, and wagon sheds; at the other, the grist and saw-mill, with good cisterns at each end, providing an ample supply of pure water. My experience has satisfied me, that spring, well, and lake water are all unhealthy in this climate, and that large under-ground cisterns, keeping the water pure and cool, are greatly to be preferred. They are easily and cheaply constructed, very convenient, and save both doctors' bills and loss of life. The negroes are never permitted to sleep before the fire, either lying down or sitting up, if it can be avoided, as they are always prone to sleep with their heads to the fire, are liable to be burnt, and to contract disease: but beds with ample clothing are provided for them, and in them they are *made to sleep*. As to their habits of amalgamation and intercourse, I know of no means whereby to regulate them, or to restrain them; I attempted it for many years by preaching virtue and decency, encouraging marriages, and by punishing, with some severity, departures from marital obligations; but it was all in vain. I allow for each hand that works out, four pounds of clear meat and one peck of meal per week. Their dinners are cooked for them, and carried to the field, always with vegetables, according to the season. There are two houses set apart at mid-day for resting, eating, and sleeping, if they desire it, and they retire to one of the weather-sheds or the grove to pass this time, not being permitted to remain in the hot sun while at rest. They cook their own suppers and breakfasts, each family being provided with an oven, skillet, and sifter, and each one having a coffee-pot, (and generally some coffee to put in it,) with knives and forks, plates, spoons, cups, &c., of their own providing. The wood is regularly furnished them;

for, I hold it to be absolutely mean, for a man to require a negro to work until daylight closes in, and then force him to get wood, sometimes half a mile off, before he can get a fire, either to warm himself or cook his supper. Every negro has his hen-house, where he raises poultry, which he is not permitted to sell, and he cooks and eats his chickens and eggs for his evening and morning meals to suit himself; besides, every family has a garden, paled in, where they raise such vegetables and fruits as they take a fancy to. A large house is provided as a nursery for the children, where all are taken at daylight, and placed under the charge of a careful and experienced woman, whose sole occupation is to attend to them, and see that they are properly fed and attended to, and above all things to keep them as dry and as cleanly as possible, under the circumstances. The suckling women come in to nurse their children four times during the day; and it is the duty of the nurse to see that they do not perform this duty until they have become properly cool, after walking from the field. In consequence of these regulations, I have never lost a child from being burnt to death, or, indeed, by accidents of any description; and although I have had more than thirty born within the last five years, yet I have not lost a single one from teething, or the ordinary summer complaints so prevalent amongst the children in this climate.

I give to my negroes four full suits of clothes with two pair of shoes, every year, and to my women and girls a calico dress and two handkerchiefs extra. I do not permit them to have "truck patches" other than their gardens, or to raise anything whatever for market; but in lieu thereof, I give to each head of a family and to every single negro on Christmas day, five dollars, and send them to the county town under the charge of the overseer or driver, to spend their money. In this way, I save my mules from being killed up in summer, and my oxen in winter, by working and hauling off their crops; and more than all, the negroes are prevented from acquiring habits of trading in farm produce, which invariably leads to stealing, followed by whipping, trouble to the master, and discontent on the part of the slave. I permit no spirits to be brought on the plantation, or used by any negro, if I can prevent it; and a violation of this rule, if found out, is always followed by a whipping, and a forfeiture of the five dollars next Christmas.

I have a large and comfortable hospital provided for my negroes when they are sick; to this is attached a nurse's room; and when a negro complains of being too unwell to work, he is at once sent to the hospital, and put under the charge of a very experienced and careful negro woman, who administers the medicine and attends to his diet, and where they remain until they are able to work again. This woman is provided with sugar, coffee, molasses, rice, flour and tea, and does not permit a patient to taste of meat or vegetables until he is restored to health. Many negroes relapse after the disease is broken, and die, in consequence of remaining in their houses and stuffing themselves with coarse food after their appetites return, and both humanity and economy dictate that this should be prevented. From

the system I have pursued, I have not lost a hand since the summer of 1845, (except one that was killed by accident,) nor has my physician's bill averaged fifty dollars a year, notwithstanding I live near the edge of the swamp of Big Black River, where it is thought to be very unhealthy.

I cultivate about ten acres of cotton and six of corn to the hand, not forgetting the little wheat patch that your correspondent speaks of, which costs but little trouble, and proves a great comfort to the negroes; and have as few sour looks and as little whipping as almost any other place of the same size.

I must not omit to mention that I have a good fiddler, and keep him well supplied with catgut, and I make it his duty to play for the negroes every Saturday night until 12 o'clock. They are exceedingly punctual in their attendance at the ball, while Charley's fiddle is always accompanied with Ihurod on the triangle, and Sam to "pat."

I also employ a good preacher, who regularly preaches to them on the Sabbath day, and it is made the duty of every one to come up clean and decent to the place of worship. As Father Garritt regularly calls on Brother Abram, (the foreman of the prayer meetings,) to close the exercises, he gives out and sings his hymn with much unction, and always cocks his eye at Charley, the fiddler, as much as to say, "Old fellow, you had your time last night; now it is mine."

I would gladly learn every negro on the place to read the bible, but for a fanaticism which, while it professes friendship to the negro, is keeping a cloud over his mental vision, and almost crushing out his hopes of salvation.

These are some of the leading outlines of my management, so far as my negroes are concerned. That they are imperfect, and could be greatly improved, I readily admit; and it is only with the hope that I shall be able to improve them by the experience of others, that I have given them to the public.

Should you come to the conclusion that these rules would be of any service when made known to others, you will please give them a place in the "Review."

A MISSISSIPPI PLANTER.

RULES AND REGULATIONS FOR THE GOVERNMENT OF A SOUTHERN PLANTATION.

1. THERE SHALL BE A PLACE FOR EVERYTHING, AND EVERYTHING SHALL BE KEPT IN ITS PLACE.

2. On the first days of January and July, there shall be an account taken of the number and condition of all the negroes, stock and farming utensils, of every description, on the premises, and the same shall be entered in the plantation book.

3. It shall be the duty of the overseer to call upon the stock-minder once every day, to know if the cattle, sheep and hogs have been seen and counted, and to find out if any are dead, missing, or lost.

4. It shall be the duty of the overseer, at least once in every week, to

see and count the stock himself, and to inspect the fences, gates, and water-gaps on the plantation, and see that they are in good order.

5. The wagons, carts, and all other implements, are to be kept under the sheds, and in the houses where they belong, except when in use.

6. Each negro-man will be permitted to keep his own axe, and shall have it forthcoming when required by the overseer. No other tool shall be taken or used by any negro, without the permission of the overseer.

7. Humanity, on the part of the overseer, and unqualified obedience on the part of the negroes, are, under all circumstances, indispensable.

8. Whipping, when necessary, shall be in moderation, and never done in a passion; and the driver shall in no instance inflict punishment, except in the presence of the overseer, and when, from sickness, he is unable to do it himself.

9. The overseer shall see that the negroes are properly clothed and well fed. He shall lay off a garden of at least six acres, and cultivate it as part of his crop, and give the negroes as many vegetables as may be necessary.

10. It shall be the duty of the overseer to select a sufficient number of the women, each week, to wash for all. The clothes shall be well washed, ironed and mended, and distributed to the negroes on Sunday morning; when every negro is expected to wash himself, comb his head, and put on clean clothes. No washing or other labor will be tolerated on the Sabbath.

11. The negroes shall not be worked in the rain, or kept out after night, except in weighing or putting away cotton.

12. It shall be the duty of the driver, at such hours of the night as the overseer may designate, to blow his horn, and go around and see that every negro is at his proper place, and to report to the overseer any that may be absent; and it shall be the duty of the overseer, at some hour between that time and day-break, to patrol the quarters himself, and see that every negro is where he should be.

13. The negro children are to be taken, every morning, by their mothers, and carried to the houses of the nurses; and every cabin shall be kept locked during the day.

14. Sick negroes are to receive particular attention. When they are first reported sick, they are to be examined by the overseer, and prescribed for, and put under the care of the nurse, and not put to work until the disease is broken and the patient beyond the danger of a relapse.

15. When the overseer shall consider it necessary to send for a physician, he shall enter in the plantation book the number of visits, and to what negro they are made.

16. When any negro shall die, an hour shall be set apart by the overseer for his burial; and at that hour all business shall cease, and every negro on the plantation, who is able to do so, shall attend the burial.

17. The overseer shall keep a plantation book, in which he shall register the birth and name of each negro that is born; the name of each negro that died, and specify the disease that killed him. He shall also keep in it the weights of the daily picking of each hand; the mark, number and weight of each bale of cotton, and the time of sending the same to market; and all other such occurrences, relating to the crop, the weather, and all other matters pertaining to the plantation, that he may deem advisable.

18. The overseer shall pitch the crops, and work them according to his own judgment, with the distinct understanding that a failure to make a bountiful supply of corn and meat for the use of the plantation, will be considered as notice that his services will not be required for the succeeding year

19. The negroes, teams, and tools, are to be considered as under the overseer's exclusive management, and are not to be interfered with by the employer, only so far as to see that the foregoing rules are strictly observed.

20. The overseer shall, under no circumstances, create an account against his employer, except in the employment of a physician, or in the purchase of medicines; but whenever anything is wanted about the plantation, he shall apply to his employer for it.

21. Whenever the overseer, or his employer, shall become dissatisfied, they shall, in a frank and friendly manner, express the same, and, if either party desires it, he shall have the right to settle and separate.

ART. IV.—TEXAS.*

CLIMATE, RIVERS, LANDS, PRODUCTIONS, ANIMALS, MINERALS, POPULATION, GOVERNMENT, EMIGRATION, ETC.

[The following production is from the pen of a gentleman who has traveled extensively in Texas, for several years, and who has, in addition, consulted every possible authority, a list of which we have given below. The paper will be of great interest to those contemplating a removal to Texas. We append a note, taken from the *Western Texan*, and refer to our previous volumes for very voluminous information upon the climate and productions of the state.]

BOUNDARIES.—Few persons abroad are aware of the magnitude and attractions of this beautiful and flourishing country. Texas has a territory of nearly 400,000 square miles—equal in extent to the whole of France and Spain together—comprising an area of about 300 *millions of acres!* It lies between 26° and 36° north latitude, and 93° 30′ and 110° west longitude. Its greatest length is about 700 miles from north to south, and 400 from east to west. It is

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* 1. Visit to Texas—Being the Journal of a Traveler through those parts most interesting to American Settlers, with Description of Scenery, Habits, &c. New-York: 1834.
2. Geographical and Historical View of Texas, with a Detailed Account of the Texan Revolution. By Hon. L. T. Pease, Hartford, Ct.: 1839.
3. History of the Revolution in Texas, Particularly of the War of 1835 and '36; together with the latest Geographical, Topographical, and Statistical Accounts of the Country—from the most Authentic Sources—with an Appendix. By the Rev. C. Newell. New-York: 1838.
4. Texas, with a Brief Sketch of the Texan War. By A. A. Parker, Esq. Concord, N. H.: 1836.
5. Texas. By Mrs. Mary Austin Holley. Lexington: 1836.
6. Texas, and its Revolution. By Frederic Le Clerc, Doctor of Medicine of the Faculty of Paris, &c., &c.
7. The Rise, Progress, and Prospects of the Republic of Texas. By William Kennedy, Esq. London: 1841.
8. Rambles in Texas and Mexico. By Latrobe.
9. Texas. By Mallaird. England.
10. Texas, Notes on, in the Hesperion. Columbus, Ohio.
11. Texas, and the Texans. By Hon. H. S. Foote.
12. Texas. By Mdme. Houstoun. England.
13. Prairiedom. By D. Page. Paine & Burgess, New-York: 1846.
14. Texas in 1840; or the Emigrant's Guide. New-York: 1840.
15. Texas. By Edwards.
16. Texas in 1850. By Miss Melinda Rankin.

bounded by Red River and Arkansas on the north, the Sabine and Louisiana on the east, the Gulf of Mexico on the south, and the Rio Grande del Norte and New Mexico on the west. It comprises a territory five times as large as New-England, and is nearly equal to the whole of the southern states—all of which contain but 370,000 square miles. Allowing, then, 280 persons to the square mile, the same as in England, it would sustain, in round numbers, a population of 100,000,000!

Face of the Country.—Texas may be divided into three districts, or regions of country, each of which, in many respects, is entirely different. These are the level, the undulating, and the mountainous or hilly; or, the lower, middle, and upper district—or, as it is more conveniently divided, into Eastern, Middle, and Western Texas. The Eastern extends from the Sabine to the Trinity; the Middle, from the Trinity to the Colorado; and the Western, from the Colorado to the Rio Grande del Norte.

The level region occupies the entire coast, extending from 30 to 60 miles into the interior. The undulating succeeds this, and embraces the whole of the interior and the north, and reaches westward to the mountainous tract, which is distant 150 or 200 miles from the boundaries of the level lands. The alluvial bottom lands of the several rivers which make into the Gulf, are from three to twenty miles in width, and are heavily timbered with live oak, red, black and white, and other species of oak; with ash, cedar, pecan, elm, hickory, mulberry, and all the other varieties of forest-trees and undergrowth common in the rich alluvions of the Mississippi. The cane-brakes are of immense extent in the low country; and on Caney Creek may be seen seventy miles long, and from one to three miles wide. Here may be grown cotton, sugar, rice, &c.

In the second division, are the high, rolling, verdant prairies, the narrow wooded bottoms, the beautiful islands of timber, the quick-running streams, the cool, refreshing springs, and the healthful clime of Texas. Here the soil, a little broken, is not inferior in quality to that of the alluvial country below; is more easily worked; the products are great and more varied, and, though not so convenient to a foreign market, will have a market at home. Here is to be the most densely-populated part of Texas, if not of America. In this region the planter may raise all the cotton, rice and tobacco he can save; all the corn and grain he requires, and stock to any extent, without labor, and almost without care.

The table-lands are yet the home of the hunter and the range of the buffalo. Little is known of them; but they are represented by travelers to rival the table-lands of Mexico; to be rich in soil and climate; to be clothed in constant verdure, beautifully variegated in surface, and watered with streams as clear as crystal; to be, in fine, a Paradise.

Of the northern portion of Texas, still less is known than of the table-lands. This region is said to be intersected by many streams of water-power, and to be rich in the precious metals.

CLIMATE.—All who have visited Texas concur in ascribing to it the most delightful temperature in the world. Though possessing a climate varying, according to local situation, from tropical to temperate, it is generally remarkably pleasant and salubrious. The average range of the thermometer, during the summer season, is about 80°, and refreshing breezes from the south blow almost without interruption. During winter ice is seldom seen except in the northern parts of the state. From March to November but little rain falls, and the power of the sun is such as to exhale that little promptly. The southerly winds are very invigorating, and one seldom takes cold, however heated, by exposure to their influence. In November the strong northers set in. In the months of December and January the cold north winds sweep down the plains with nearly as much regularity as the southeast wind in summer; being occasionally interrupted by that wind, chiefly on the full and change of the moon. These periodical winds doubtless tend greatly to purify the atmosphere, and contribute much to give the climate of Texas a blandness which is rarely enjoyed, and a salubrity which is looked for in vain in the low alluvial country of the southern United States. The climate, indeed, is modified by so many favorable circumstances as to possess all the genial influences of Louisiana, while it escapes its attendant evils. In addition to the invigorating sea-breeze and the freeness from marsh effluvia which this enjoys, there is another advantage which contributes, perhaps, still more effectually, to the preservation of the health of the emigrant, that he can locate immediately upon the rich open prairies, and realize a plenteous crop, without exposure to those "clearings" which prove so deleterious to the western farmer, in his acclimation to a "fever-and-ague bottom."

Away from the river bottoms, which are frequently overflowed, and the vicinity of forests, you escape the fevers to which such regions are sometimes exposed, and enjoy uninterrupted and vigorous health.

The forests of Texas are generally free from underwood; and there are few miasmatic marshes or stagnant pools, to give rise to epidemics, or occasion any fatal disease.

RIVERS AND LAKES.—No part of the extensive coast of the Gulf of Mexico presents a greater number of commanding harbors, bays and inlets, than that of Texas. The interior, intersected by numerous magnificent and navigable streams, in close vicinity to the great western tributaries of the Mississippi, and holding easy communication with the mighty "father of rivers" himself, furnishes a commercial position very desirable, and seldom surpassed.

Red River may be considered in part as belonging to Texas. The vast region west of the mountains in which it rises, and through which it rolls its turbid waters, has been yet scarcely explored; but it is known to be of great fertility and of surpassing beauty. In this region has the Texan emigrant reared his cottage, and planted his cotton, and his corn, and his wheat, which is borne along the cur-

rent of Red River to the great mart of the Southwest. The chief rivers, those which are more or less navigable for steamboats, are the Sabine, Neches, Trinity, Brazos, Colorado, Guadaloupe, San Antonio, and the Rio Grande. Besides these, there are others of less note and magnitude, though navigable to a considerable extent: the Angelina, San Jacinto, Buffalo Bayou, Oyster and Chacolate Bayou, San Bernard, Caney, Navidad, La Baca and Nueces.

There are no lakes of any importance to be found in this country. A few small ones near the sources of the Guadaloupe, and on some of the tributaries of Red River and the Trinity, are all that are worthy of the name, and they are inconsiderable. To a country so well watered, intersected by rivers so numerous and important, and offering such valuable facilities for canal communication, they would be useless. Indeed, with but very little expense, its vast water courses might be united in one great navigable chain, which would render the transportation of produce from any section of this wide-spread territory, to a commercial emporium at any point on the coast, a matter of the utmost ease and at a trifling cost.

Prairies and Meadows.—Texas in general is a prairie country, having all the streams skirted by timber. The sublime and beautiful are both united in her vast prairies, sublime in extent and beautiful in prospect. One may travel for miles and even leagues, over a continuous plain, with nothing to interrupt the utmost stretch of vision upon the "living green," save the beautiful groves and "islands of timber," which are here and there interspersed; and flowers of every variety, hue and fragrance, and herds of cattle and deer; delighting the eye with the view of splendid lawns and magnificent parks tastefully laid out by the hand of nature, and presenting all the order and taste of civilization. Nothing in nature can surpass the beauty and loveliness of a Texan landscape. Nothing can exceed the beauty of her vast natural meadows in the spring and summer seasons; neither is it possible to form an estimate, even in imagination, of the number of useful domestic animals that may be reared on them without trouble or expense. Even in the winter season the pasturage is sufficiently verdant to dispense with feeding live stock.

Timber Lands.—No country in the world affords a greater variety of timber than Texas. Her forests of live oak and cedar are unrivalled. Her whole coast nearly, including all the bayous and river bottoms, from the Sabine to the Nueces, is one entire belt of timber. The eastern section probably embraces more woodland than any other. It is heavily timbered with pine, oak, ash, walnut, hickory, pecan, mulberry, cedar, cypress, and other forest trees, which extend quite to Red River, occasionally variegated with beautiful prairies containing from one hundred to several thousand acres. The soil is admirably adapted to grazing and agriculture, and the timber trade will soon become extensive and lucrative in this region.

Productions of the Soil.—Among the productions which may be regarded as naturally adapted to the soil of Texas, and which now forms

a chief and important article of commerce, cotton stands pre-eminent. This is the great crop of Texas, and the source of much of its wealth and power. Its staple is uniformly good, and near the Gulf it equals in length and fineness the Sea Island cotton. It is an indigenous plant, and in the western region, needs to be planted only once in three or four years to yield an abundant crop. The climate is ever favorable, and the soil, whether upland or lowland, woodland or prairie, all admirably suited to the culture of the article, and the crop can scarcely ever fail. The sugar-cane grows luxuriantly throughout the whole level region; but its culture, for various reasons, will not be extensive, nor will the production of sugar, unless forced by unexpected circumstances, probably compete with that of Louisiana for many years to come.

Tobacco grows almost spontaneously throughout Texas. It is an important production, equal in quality to that of Cuba, and will soon become an article of commerce and export.

The indigenous indigo of Texas is greatly superior to the plant which is cultivated in the United States. It is manufactured in families for domestic use, and is preferred to the imported indigo.

The invaluable article of bread-stuff, maize or Indian corn, is produced easily and abundantly in every district of the country. Two crops are annually gathered, yielding in all about seventy-five bushels of shelled corn. The first crop is usually planted about the middle of February, and the second the middle of June.

Wheat, buckwheat, millet, rye, oats, barley, and other small grains, yield plentiful crops to the farmer throughout the undulating district. The establishment of mills will be the signal for abundant harvests of grain. Flax and hemp are well adapted to the soil, and furnish ample rewards to the labor of the agriculturist. Rice is already produced in considerable quantity, and can be grown to any extent.

The grape and mulberry abound here. They are indigenous to the soil, and grow luxuriantly, indicating that wine and silk, as well as cotton and tobacco, will one day become staples of the country. The vanilla plant grows wild. It can be successfully cultivated, and will become a commercial commodity of inestimable value. This delicious plant is highly esteemed in medicine—as a perfume—to flavor the cigar, and in various culinary arts, &c.

The nopal, celebrated for the production of the cochineal insect, grows luxuriantly. Its fruit with the leaves furnishes food for vast herds of cattle and wild horses. It is moreover highly esteemed, and purchased eagerly in the Mexican markets.

In the western counties the musquit tree is very common. It is a species of locust, and besides furnishing in its fruit excellent food for cattle and horses, it is superior to cedar even for the purposes of building and fencing. It forms here also the principal article for fuel.

The yaupan or tea tree deserves especial notice. Its leaf is very similar in form and flavor to that of the veritable Chinese shrub, and is not at all inferior to the black tea, or bohea, so commonly used. It furnishes a very acceptable and cheap beverage, in lieu of the pure Chinese article, which in the interior is so often adulterated, and so costly and difficult to be obtained.

Cayenne pepper, called by the Mexicans *chile*, grows exuberantly all over Texas, and vast quantities are annually consumed for domestic use. The Indians and Creoles are extremely fond of it, and no Mexican would willingly relinquish his chile for any other luxury.

Many other sources of wealth and enjoyment are found here, and will in all good time be realized by her citizens, who are so industriously exploring the true springs of national greatness and individual prosperity.

SHRUBS AND FLOWERS.—The displays of vegetable nature in Texas are profuse, various and valuable; presenting, on the one hand, the stately and magnificent forest, and on the other, delighting the eye with the rich and splendid scene of the luxuriant prairie; garnished with an endless variety of beautiful and fragrant flowers, and forming a landscape of indescribable and surpassing loveliness. It is an elysium for the florist and painter.

It is impossible to imagine the beauty of a Texan prairie, when, in the vernal season, its rich luxuriant herbage, adorned with the thousand flowers of endless hue and figure, seems to realize the vision of a terrestrial paradise.

Many of the northern garden flowers and hot-house exotics bloom on the prairies spontaneously, and in the utmost profusion and in wonderful variety.

All the varieties of the genus stellaria—yellow, blue and purple—display their rich and gaudy tints in every direction. The splendid and fashionable dahlia, an exotic highly esteemed and carefully reared in foreign hot-houses, is indigenous to the Southwest. The numerous family of geraniums serve to adorn and perfume with their sweet fragrance the wild meadows of Texas. Several varieties of digitalis and sanguinaria are also found. Different species of the nymphæ, or water lily, here "waste their sweetness on the desert air," and the bignonia or trumpet flower, and lobelia cardinalis, are very common. The May apple, bearing a delicate and delicious flower, is abundant, and violets everywhere form a common carpeting for the prairies. The beautiful and much admired passion-flower is frequent in its season, while the perpetual rose, multiflora and chickasaws, and other varieties of roses, are indigenous to the country, and grow without cultivation or care. The morning and evening primrose displays the mild beauty of its simple, but chaste and elegant flowers almost everywhere—while the jonquil and hyacinth, honeysuckle and sweet seringa, form a fancifully variegated nosegay, or are thrown together in most admired disorder throughout this paradise of flowers. The hoya carnosa or wax-plant, both white and red, is common.

The mimosa, in the prairies of Texas, bears a flower of a delicate pink color, and much larger than those of the north. This plant has ever been and ever will be, perhaps, a matter of curious interest and admiration to the naturalist and philosopher. It is very elastic to the tread, so that when the traveler has trampled over its drooping and apparently withered leaves, and looks back for the path which his rude footsteps have marked out, not a vestige of the invasion remains, but all again is life and verdure.

FRUITS, &c.—Many of the fruits of the tropics and those of the north grow luxuriantly in Texas. The fig, a very delicious and much admired fruit, is very common, and may be raised in the greatest abundance, with very little labor or care. The Texas peach is unrivalled: nowhere is it of larger growth or richer flavor. The northern peach will not compare with it. The nectarine, quince and grape are equally luxuriant, and produce excellent fruit. A great variety of berries, as the mulberry, dewberry, whortleberry, and gooseberry, grow wild, and in the greatest profusion. The pecan, walnut, and hickory nuts, are very abundant. Wild plums and crab apples are common, and the pawpaw produces a rich and delicious fruit. The orange, lemon and lime grow well there; and the pine-apple and olive may be made to ripen with a little care.

Garden vegetables of every description, and melons, are easily cultivated, and yield in the greatest abundance.

ANIMALS.—The wild animals of Texas are not numerous.—Formerly they were frequent and formidable tenants of the forest, but at present they are rarely met with.

The black bear frequents the forests and cane-brakes, and is a favorite object of the hunt. Wolves abound, and sometimes prove a great annoyance to the farmer. The pecari, or Mexican hog, though rarely met with, is a ferocious animal. The wild hog is frequently seen, and is sometimes very furious. These hogs are descended from the domestic swine, and have become wild by running at large in the woods.

Wild horses, or *mustangs*, originally introduced by the Spaniards, now roam at large, and are exceedingly numerous in the northern prairies and western sections of Texas. Many of them are animals of fine figure and spirit, and are highly prized for their beauty and fleetness. They are caught by the lasso, and may be thoroughly broke and rendered quite docile. The young are easily subdued and domesticated. They are hardy and active, and well adapted to the saddle or the stirrup.

Mingled with the herds of mustangs are often found jacks, jennies and mules. The rearing of these animals is a lucrative business. The expense of raising them is a trifle—the vast natural prairies affording inexhaustible pasturage for this purpose.

The buffalo, or bison, is found in Texas astonishingly gregarious. Thousands and tens of thousands in a drove are yet seen in the interior, roving over the prairies, whose luxuriant herbage furnishes them with the means of subsistence. They are much hunted for their flesh and hides. Their beef is highly prized; and the buffalo robes are in great demand, at good prices, and can always command a ready sale.

The deer is still more numerous than the buffalo, being found in every part of Texas. Hence venison is very common and very cheap. Deer-skins never fail to find a ready and profitable market. The moose, antelope, and mountain goat, are also found ranging upon the frontier or far west.

The fox-hunter will find constant enjoyment in this country, where

Reynard peeps from every bush and brake. Raccoons, opossums, rabbits and squirrels are in great abundance, and a greater variety of smaller animals serve to stock the forests of Texas with game, and supply the hunter with endless and animated sport.

Wild Game.—Wild game is yet abundant in Texas. One accustomed to the use of the fowling-piece or rifle may, in almost any part of the country, keep a table well supplied. Besides the deer, which abound in the prairies, wild turkeys are very numerous, generally fat, and their meat tender and delicious. Prairie hens, large and fine birds, combining the qualities of the partridge, grouse, and pheasant, are much esteemed, and very common.

Large and almost innumerable flocks of wild geese and turkeys, brants, teal, canvas-back and common duck, and other water-fowl, frequent the rivers, and lakes, and sea-shore, and are so plentiful that one can always furnish himself with as many of them as he desires.

Partridges, quails, pheasants, grouse, pigeons, and turtle-doves, are very plentiful. Snipes, plovers, woodcock, rice-birds, and ortolans, which form so celebrated a dish in Europe, are here very abundant.

The bald-headed eagle and Mexican eagle, which is the noblest of the aquiline tribe; the vulture, various species of hawks and owls, are among the birds of prey, and very common.

Cranes, whooping, white and blue; bec rouge, a species of crane with a beautiful red crest; swans, pelicans, king-fishers, and water-turkeys, are all aquatic birds of prey, and very numerous.

Crows, red-winged blackbirds, starlings, bluejays, different species of woodpecker, redbirds, martins, swallows and wrens, abound. The beautiful paroquet, the oriole, whippoorwill and cardinal, and the sweet-toned mocking bird, enliven the woods with the beauty of plumage and melody of voice which belong to them.

Thus nature has not denied to Texas a less bountiful provision in this department of natural history than in those before mentioned.

Fish and Reptiles, &c.—The rivers and bays of Texas abound in fish of an excellent quality, of great variety, and some of them of peculiar character.

Redfish Bar, in Galveston Bay, takes its name from the number of redfish which are caught there. This fish is very delicious, and often weighs fifty pounds. Yellow, white and blue codfish are found in abundance in the rivers and streams. Sheepshead, buffalo, perch, mullet, pike, trout, flounders, suckers, and other fish common in American waters. The gar is a worthless fish, with a snout of immense length. The alligator gar is very large—several yards in length; its back is covered with scales, and it resembles the alligator, which is very common in the rivers and bayous, and of enormous size. Eels are common in the fresh water streams, and are much esteemed. Crabs, crayfish, shrimps, &c., are very plentiful; and oysters, clams, muscles, and various other marine animals, may be had "all along shore." Beds of oysters line the coast, and nearly all the inlets along it. They are large and well-flavored, and are equal to any obtained in the Atlantic cities. The hard and soft

shelled turtle are common to all the rivers and bayous, especially near their mouths. Lizards, &c. are to be found everywhere.

No new country was ever less troubled with serpents than Texas. Poisonous snakes, it is true, are often to be met with, but their bite is seldom or never fatal, as the antidotes are always very plentiful and close at hand.

The rattlesnake is common in the river bottoms, and grows to an enormous size. Land and water moccasins, coach-whip and copperheads, are the only venomous snakes besides the rattle found in Texas. The chicken-snake—very fond of poultry, as its name denotes—the garter-snake, and several others, are entirely harmless.

The "horned frog," inhabiting the prairies, and probably of the lizard species, is very common here, and regarded as a curiosity.

Beetles, grasshoppers, butterflies, fireflies, ants, wasps, mosquitos, spiders, and a great variety of others belonging to the same species and orders with these, are found in Texas.

Mosquitos are a great annoyance in the swamps, woods, and river bottoms, but on the uplands are not so numerous and troublesome. The sandfly, ticks and redbugs are very annoying to travelers. If not carefully guarded against, they will spoil the beauty of the fairest face in creation, beyond the redemption of all cosmetics, for days to come.

The horsefly is a most malicious and troublesome insect. The gadfly is a dreadful tormentor of the cattle in summer, as the horsefly, gnat, and others of like species of equal attachment to suffering humanity, are to domestic comfort.

The cantharides, or Spanish flies, so commonly used in medicine, are found here; and the honey-bee swarms, and has made her favorite haunt in Texas. Their luscious stores are deposited in hollow trees, and the bee-hunter is constantly employed to secure the honey and wax for exportation and trade. It is a common fact in natural history, that the bee is the pioneer of civilization; and the Indians, whenever they notice its approach, exclaim, "there come the white men!"

That species of spider, called the tarantula, is very common, and grows enormously large. It is a most malignant and disgusting insect, and its bite is believed by many to be without a remedy; but this may be always at hand in the form of salt and vinegar, chloride of soda, sweet oil, or ammonia. Travelers and emigrants should always be provided with the antidote.

MINERALS.—Texas abounds with minerals and interesting geological attractions. The silver mine of San Saba is among the richest in the world, and under the dominion of Spain afforded a considerable revenue to the Spanish crown. Gold has been found upon the Atoyac, and silver ore upon the Bedais.

Iron ore is found in many parts of Texas, some of it yielding upwards of 50 per cent. Lead, copper, copperas and alum are found in considerable quantities. Bituminous coal is found upon the Trinity and Upper Brazos, equal to some of the foreign coal. Salt

is found in the greatest abundance. Immense quantities are annually taken from a famous salt lake near the Rio Grande, and transported to a foreign market.

Salt springs and lagoons abound near the Trinity, and a branch of the Brazos river has its water highly impregnated with mineral salt. Soda and potash are formed near the salt lagoons, in dry seasons, by the atmosphere.

Lime can be plentifully furnished from limestone existing in the undulating and northern portions of Texas. In the level district, oyster-shell lime can be substituted. Asphaltum is sometimes found on the coast, thrown ashore by the sea from the opposite side of the Gulf.

Large quantities of silicious minerals, agate, chalcedony, jasper, and some singular petrifactions, are found near the mountains. The remains of whole forests are seen, near the Trinity and Brazos rivers, entirely petrified. Some of the trees are of enormous size.

Extensive quarries of red and white sandstone, or freestone, abound throughout the country. Near the Trinity and Colorado especially they are very common. At Austin, the capital, there is a valuable quarry of white stone, similar to that in Paris, of which the Louvre is built. It is soft and easily worked with the knife, and may be reduced to any form; but on exposure to the atmosphere it becomes a perfect freestone, and is as hard as granite or marble. It is a beautiful building stone, and busts, mantel ornaments, pipes, &c. have been made from it and sold at a great price.

The material of slate is found on the Trinity, and in the vicinity of San Antonio de Bexar.

Mineral Springs.—Texas, as well as the United States, is bountifully supplied with mineral springs. The Salinilla springs, both white and salt sulphur, near the Trinity, in Walker county, are very remarkable. They rise near the salines, in a picturesque valley, and are highly appreciated for their medicinal virtues. Not far from these, and near the Bedais, is a valuable white sulphur, supersaturated with magnesia, and possessing all the charms and healing properties of the celebrated white sulphur of Virginia.

Thirty miles west, in the same county, and on the road to Washington, is a blue sulphur spring of great value. Near the Cibolo, and about thirty miles from Bexar, is a mineral spring, the waters of which are in high repute, and have been visited for ages past by the Mexicans and aborigines for their medicinal virtues. Besides these there are others which promise to be valuable. Near Carolina, in Montgomery county, is a white sulphur spring of great excellence, whose waters possess similar virtues to those already noticed, and it may be resorted to by many invalids, with the prospect of speedy relief.

Population.—The population of Texas, at present, may be estimated at 200,000 souls, most of whom are Anglo-Americans and Europeans. The Mexicans and aborigines are reduced to a cypher, and will soon disappear. The great majority of the population of Texas, and the most valuable portion of it, consists of emigrants

from the United States. The active and enterprising New-Englander, the bold and hardy western hunter, the chivalrous and high-spirited southern planter, meet here upon common ground, divested of all sectional influence, and lend their combined energies to the improvement of this infant but delightful and prosperous country.

Of transatlantic emigrants, the principal are English, French, German, Swiss, and Irish.

There is a large black population in Texas, and though for ever the property of their masters, and under the restraints of the law, they are invested with more liberty, and are less liable to abuse, than the slaves of the southern states generally. The laws in relation to master and slave are generally the same as in Louisiana. Free negroes are not allowed to reside in the state.

The few Indian tribes which inhabit the forests of Texas, are fast retiring to the wilds of the West, where they will soon separate, and their names and language for ever perish.

Education and Religion.—The social and religious institutions of Texas are beginning to develop themselves with rapid strides; and under wholesome laws and the banner of freedom, the cause of liberty, education and religion will prosper. Her free Constitution guaranties the right of self-government, and of worshiping God according to the dictates of conscience—the end and aim of all true patriots. No person shall be molested on account of his religious or political opinions, provided he does not disturb the public peace.

Primary and common schools are established in the chief towns and counties, and education is becoming universal, and easily attained. The College of Ruterville has been liberally endowed by the state, and is quite flourishing. Galveston University is under full operation, and is very popular. Churches of different denominations are established throughout the land. Galveston has five already—one to each 1,000 inhabitants; and Houston, we believe, has nearly as many more.

With these several affinities and beautiful combinations, we may safely predict a high standing for Texas, whose materials of greatness are abundant, and only need some plastic hands to give them form. We see in her a new state, growing up like a young girl by the side of her yet blooming mother—a lovely scion from the parent stock.

Government.—The administration of Texas is that of a single state of the United States. The governor is to be elected by the people for four years, and is ineligible for the succeeding term. There is a Senate and House of Representatives, which meet annually; the members of the former serve for four years, and the latter two. There is a Secretary of State and a Commissioner to the Land Bureau. The Supreme Court holds an annual term at the capital; and Superior and District Courts are in session nearly the whole year, in the several counties. These courts are open for the prosecution of claims and debts, and redress of grievances to alien friends upon the same terms as to resident citizens. Property sold under execution is sold for cash, without appraisement.

The real, personal, and mixed estate of any citizen of Texas, dying intestate, descends in parcenary to his or her kindred, male and female, as follows:

1st. To his or her children, and their descendants, if any there be.

2d. If none, then to his or her father's mother, in equal proportions; but if only the father or mother of the intestate survives, then the estate is divided into two equal portions, one of which goes to the surviving parent, and the other to the brothers and sisters of the intestate, and to their descendants; but if no brother or sister, or legal descendants of such brothers and sisters survive, then the whole estate goes to the surviving parent.

If there be neither father nor mother surviving, the estate then passes to the brothers and sisters, or their descendants.

3d. In case of such kindred as above mentioned surviving, the estate is then divided into two moieties, one of which passes to the paternal and the other to the maternal kindred.

4th. When one joint tenant dies before severance, the right of survivorship does not attach, but the interest of the deceased joint tenant descends to his or her heirs and legal representatives.

5th. Property of an intestate without issue, acquired by gift, demise, or descent, from the father of such intestate, reverts to the paternal kindred, without regard to the mother, or maternal kindred, of such intestate. So, *vice versa*, if derived from the mother, then it reverts to the maternal kindred, without reference to the paternal. Illegitimates can only inherit, and transmit inheritance, on the side of their mother.

6th. Alien heirs of deceased citizens of Texas are allowed nine years to dispose of the estate. The right of administration is guarantied, 1st. To surviving husband or wife. 2d. To the nearest of kin. 3d. To principal creditor.

The taxes of the state are quite moderate.

The common law of England is the prevailing law, unless otherwise opposed by statute.

Lands and Titles.—The old maps of Texas generally represent the whole country as occupied and disposed of by *grants*, to empresarios. This is calculated to convey the idea that there is no vacant or unappropriated land in the country. Such an idea is totally erroneous, and the cause of much mischief. Of these contracts or grants, so called, none have been fully complied with except Austin's. Of the others, only a part of the families contracted for were ever settled, and most of them have expired by the terms of the contracts.

There is not sufficient data, as yet, to state positively how much land has been appropriated; but it is believed that the appropriations will not exceed one-tenth part of the public domain. It is not true, as has been often stated, that all the good lands in Texas have been taken. A great portion of the best soil in the country yet remains unlocated, and will in all probability for many years to come; or if purchased, will be in the hands of speculators, who will re-sell it at a fair advance.

Speculators have made, and will continue to make, fortunes in Texas, as land-jobbers. Sales are rapid, and the price of land is continually increasing.

The emigrant, however, should look well to his title, and not purchase till he has made a survey of the land, or is well apprized of its situation and value, by some personal friend, in whose word and judgment he can place the utmost confidence.

Fraudulent scrips and titles are very numerous, and the unprincipled are very ready to practice upon the credulity and inexperience of the emigrant, and cheat him out of his goods and money. The new comers cannot be too cautious.

A great number of spurious land titles are in circulation, purporting to issue from land companies, which are quite valueless. The El Dorado Company, Galveston Bay, and Texas Land Company, the Arkansas and Texas Land Association, and the Colorado and Red River Company, have each issued scrips in New-York and other places, which have no legal foundation, and give no title to lands.

There are various descriptions of land titles in Texas. The first are those emanating from the Spanish government. Many of these are unconditional and indisputable, and are undoubtedly the best that can be found. Those emanating from the Mexican government, many of which are good, and others totally invalid, certain conditions having been attached to the grant which were never fulfilled by the grantee. Most, if not all the empresario contract grants, except Austin's, have been declared forfeited and void.

Another class of titles are those emanating from the government of Texas, or Texas and Coahuila. These are of various kinds; many of them seem to have been granted so incautiously, and to have offered at the same time so many facilities for fraud and deception, that it is almost impossible, without a judicial investigation, to pronounce any particular one of these titles to be good or bad.

The titles emanating from the State of Texas may be divided into four classes:

1st. Those titles granted to all who arrived in the country previous to the Declaration of Independence.

2d. Titles granted to those who were actually present in Texas at the Declaration of Independence, or who assisted in the campaign of 1836.

3d. Titles, the head rights of colonists who have arrived in the country, and have become citizens, at various periods, since the Declaration of Independence.

4th. Titles created by the issuing of government scrip.

It is notorious that many forged titles to lands in Texas still continue to be sold in the United States. Many of these may be purchased all over the United States and Europe, but they are worthless. Good and valuable titles, however, may be obtained, with proper care and caution, though a government *patent* from Texas, be it known, is only a government *quit-claim*, and does not confirm an indisputable right. It releases the government, but does not guarantee to the purchaser his land against a bona fide title, or a legal claimant.

The resources of Texas, therefore, are unbounded, and her lands offer the greatest inducement to emigrants of enterprise and character of any upon the Continent of America, and the utmost dependence may be placed upon the determination of the Texan government to insure all titles to land that have been legally obtained under existing laws.

The Mexican yard or *vara*, is established at three geometrical feet—a straight line of 5000 varas is a league—a square, whose sides shall be a league, is called a *sitio*—five sitios is a hacienda. A sitio or league of land is 4,428 English acres. A labor is 177 acres.

How to Thrive.—Let those who reside in cities, and cannot find profitable employment, go to Texas and raise their food out of the bosom of the earth.

Any man with 500 dollars can become an independent farmer, and with industry and economy may continue independent for life, and have a good home for his family at his death.

Thus, 100 acres of good land will cost	$200
Of this land 20 acres can be fenced and a good crop put into the ground for	50
A good log house will cost about	50
Expenses of voyage or journey	50
Add for support of family till the crop is gathered, and incidental expenses	100
For purchase of horse and cow, and pair of oxen	50
Total	$500

The crop, when gathered, will be sufficient to maintain a family till another and a larger crop can be raised, as more land could be fenced and cultivated the next year by the settler himself, say ten acres. The 20 acres will yield two crops of corn, in all about 1000 bushels, worth one dollar per bushel, or $1000, besides sweet potatoes to any desired quantity. This would be more than enough to maintain the family the second year. In addition to which they would have the produce of their garden and dairy, and the increase of stock, swine, sheep, poultry, &c., which is of great value.

A soil that yields the fruit of nearly every latitude, almost spontaneously, with a climate of perpetual summer, must, like that of other countries, have a seed-time and harvest. Though the land be literally flowing with milk and honey, yet the cows must be milked and the honey must be gathered. Houses must be built and enclosures made. The deer must be hunted and the fish must be caught. From the primeval curse, that in the sweat of his brow man shall eat bread, though its severity be mollified, there is no exemption, even here. The emigrant must bear in mind, that in a new community labor is to be performed; that if he cannot labor himself, he must take with him those who can. He sees about him all the means of supplying, not only the necessities, but also the comforts and luxuries of life. It is his part to apply them to his own use. He is here abundantly furnished with the raw material, but his hands must mould them into the forms of art.

No hay is required, as cattle subsist in the fields, and roam without fodder or shelter thoughout the year.

Here then, after deducting all expenses, is a farm, which the second year will yield double the outlay, and the settler will have a property worth twelve or fifteen hundred dollars, and about 1000 dollars in money, after having the original purchase money returned to him with interest, and maintaining himself and family for two years.

Go, then, to the El Dorado of the South-west, while you have something to go with—another season your substance may be wasted, and it may be too late.

Hints to Emigrants.—Though Texas were quite the El Dorado it has been represented, yet it would be desirable for the emigrant, accustomed to the climate, institutions, manners, habits and customs of the northern and middle states, to say nothing of Europe, to ascertain, in the first place, as far as possible, whether he would like those of the South; and if, after due inquiry and personal observation, which, after all, is the best, he believes that he would, then he runs but little risk of disappointment in removing to Texas.

Families emigrating should take along with them provisions for six months or a year, if possible, as it will save them much cost and trouble. Also, such light furniture as they can conveniently carry, and such as will be useful in a new home, and is generally scarce in a new country. Every individual should be well supplied with substantial clothing for winter, as well as light clothing for summer. Summer clothing is not always a sufficient protection against the northers peculiar to the country. A good blanket capot is indispensable.

A good supply of garden-seeds and farming utensils should, if practicable, be taken: they will contribute exceedingly to the health, comfort and pleasure, as well as to the support of the new settler.

Each family should be supplied with a strong cloth tent and mosquito netting, to protect them from the weather, &c., till their cabins are erected. These are generally constructed of logs or hewn timber, in the cottage style, one story high, though many a wealthy planter and farmer has his frame or brick dwelling, amply furnished with articles more sumptuous than those in common use.

The living cannot but be excellent in a country which is supplied with such a profusion of the good things of life as Texas. Vegetables of every description, wild fowl and game, beef, pork, venison, poultry, butter, eggs, milk and honey, &c., with tea, coffee, sugar, and all the foreign luxuries usually found upon tables in other states. There is little cause or opportunity to complain of the quantity or quality of fare which is to be found upon a Texas table.

Mechanics should take along with them abundance of tools, and go resolved to continue their industrious habits, to live temperately and economically, and they will be sure to make money and enjoy excellent health.

On embarking for Texas, no passports, certificates, or attested papers of any kind are necessary, except on legal documents. If your destination is for the towns near the Gulf on the east, or for lands in the west of Texas, go by sea to the nearest point of your destination.

It is less expensive, and takes less time. If your destination is near Red River, take the inland route. If you start from New-Orleans, apply to some friend for information; but in all cases it is preferable for an emigrant to place his business in the hands of a merchant acquainted with the trade: as by so doing he may save much trouble and expense. We have already recommended to emigrants to take their furniture, farming tools and servants with them; and to mechanics, their furniture and tools of trade. If you start from the states north of Virginia, it is cheapest to go direct by sea, or down the Ohio and Mississippi; if from the southern states, by Mobile or New-Orleans. From New-Orleans there are several steam-ships making regular trips to and from Texas, and excellent packets, by which emigrants can be transported with their baggage, in two or three days, at a trifling expense.

The autumn is the best time to remove to Texas.—1st. It is better traveling; the roads are dry, and the temperature of the weather is more agreeable. 2. It is more healthy on the road, and to be there at the opening of spring, and become accustomed to the climate and warm weather by degrees, there will be a fairer prospect of continued health. 3d. It is the season when provisions are cheapest and most plenty. 4. It is the shortest time a person can be in the country and raise a crop the ensuing season. To arrive in October or November, he will have plenty of time to build a cabin, fence in his ground, and prepare for a crop.

The spring time is more delightful, and those who emigrate at this season are universally charmed with the beauty of the country, and their first impressions are more vivid, and probably more agreeable.

Those who go by sea may reach there in March or April, in time to seek a location, and establish themselves in season for a crop.—At this period every thing is enchanting.

No condition can be more independent and happy than that of the Texan farmer or planter. With a few weeks labor in the year, he can supply himself and family with all the necessaries and luxuries of life. He can make his own sugar and molasses, and if he pleases, supply his table with most excellent wine from the native grape. His table may be loaded at all seasons with the finest poultry, fish and game, and the choicest garden vegetables, and the rarest fruits. His sheep, goats, hogs, cows, horses, mules, cattle, &c., require no more care than just to prevent their running wild, furnishing at all times abundance of beef, pork, butter, milk, wool, hides, &c., for domestic use. He may raise his own cotton, and wool, and silk, and weave his own household garments. The palm and birch furnish the best materials for hats and beds, and moss for mattresses, that can be used in this climate. The native chiccory furnishes an excellent and healthy substitute for coffee, and the yaupan for tea, while salt is every where cheap and abundant.

No country in North America holds out such inducements to emigrants as Texas, both for the salubrity of its climate, the fertility of its soil, and the variety of its products.

Emigrants with their families would do well to take their beds and

bedding, and a moderate supply of culinary utensils, the most essential of farming tools, and a good stock of clothing. The more cumbersome household furniture, as chairs, tables, bedsteads, &c., are not essential. Their place can be supplied by the ruder articles of domestic manufacture. Mosquito bars, or netting, are indispensable to comfort at night, and should by no means be forgotten.

Emigrants intending to settle in Texas should not rely upon what the inhabitants of one section may say of other portions of it. Self-interest, as in other matters, strongly warps the judgment. The statements are too often contradictory, and little reliance ought to be placed upon them. The best way for emigrants to gain correct information is to go and examine personally for themselves. Let every farmer at the north, who has to tug and toil on the sterile and rocky soil of New-England, with eight months of winter, to support his family, judge for himself, whether it is better to emigrate or stay where he is—whether it is better to struggle for existence, and feel the cold grasp of poverty, or roll in plenty and live at ease.

Miscellany.—The first body of colonists from the United States established within the limits of Texas, was planted on the banks of the Brazos de Dios, by Gen. Stephen F. Austin, in the year 1821.

To the vast and opulent territory of Texas, the Spanish conquerors, more than three centuries ago, gave the names of *New-Estremadura* and *New-Spain*, from the resemblance of the towns on the sea-board to those of their own country.

June 26th, 1832.—Attack and surrender of the fort at Velasco.

October 1st, 1835.—Battle of Gonzales.

October 6th.—Successful attack upon Goliad, in which the Mexicans are again defeated.

October 28th.—Battle of Conception, in which Bowie and Fannin gain a brilliant victory over 400 Mexicans.

December 9th.—Attack and surrender of Bexar, in which the enemy lost 590 killed and wounded.

November 3d.—General Convention at San Felipe.

March 4th.—Convention assemble at Washington, on the Brazos, and form an independent government. 2d. Independence is first declared.

March 6th.—Storming of the Alamo by the Mexican forces, headed by Santa Anna in person. The brave defenders, amounting to only 150, after a long and obstinate resistance, are overpowered and destroyed. Here, Travis, Bowie and Crockett fell. The loss of the enemy, during the siege, amounted to about 1,500.

March 14th.—Colonel Fannin, with a force of only 275 volunteers, capitulates, after a hard-fought battle, to Urrea's division, consisting of 700 cavalry and 1,200 infantry, the flower of the Mexican army. From five to seven hundred Mexicans were destroyed. The prisoners were marched back to Goliad, and on the 27th, with Major Miller's and Ward's detachment, amounting in all to about 400, basely betrayed, and, by orders of Santa Anna, shot down in cold blood.

April 6th.—Destruction of Harrisburg.

April 21st.—Battle of San Jacinto. Total route of the Mexican army. Santa Anna made prisoner.

1845.—Resolutions of the United States Congress annexing Texas to the American Union.

The city of Austin is assigned as the seat of government.

The Supreme Court has appellative jurisdiction only; the district courts have jurisdiction both in law and equity; and in all cases in equity, either party may claim a trial by jury.

The pardoning power is vested in the Executive, except in cases of treason and impeachment. The governor possesses the veto power, qualified, however, as in the United States Constitution.

In no case can the legislature authorize the issue of treasury warrants or treasury notes, or paper of any description, to circulate as money.

The legislature has power to protect by law, from forced sale, a certain portion of the property of all heads of families. The homestead of a family, not to exceed two hundred acres of land, (not included in a town or city,) or any town or city lot or lots, in value not to exceed $2,000, shall not be subject to forced sale for any debts hereafter contracted; nor shall the owner, if a married man, be at liberty to alienate the same, unless by the consent of his wife, in such manner as the legislature may point out.

Taxation is to be uniform throughout the state; the legislature may pass an income tax, and it may exempt from taxation $250 worth of the household furniture or other property belonging to each family in the state.

The legislature cannot contract debts to exceed in the aggregate the sum of $100,000, except in case of war, to repel invasions, or suppress insurrections; and in no case shall any amount be borrowed, except by a vote of two-thirds of both houses of the legislature.

"Texas possesses eminent advantages in the extent of her territory. We have no certain data upon which to base an estimate of the superficies in our limits; but we extend from the upper Red River to the Rio Grande, and from the Sabine to New-Mexico, with an area of something over 200,000 square miles, equal to four of the largest of the old states. Supposing the prosperity of the state, and the necessity for the means to fulfil the national faith, may require Texas to surrender to the United States the permanent or temporary possession of the north-western section, as a separate territory for the Indians, we shall, nevertheless, have more than double the amount of any other state. So far, then, as the influence of being the 'Empire State of the South,' in relation to territory, is calculated to gratify the pride, or the ultimate destiny of the capitalist or settler, Texas presents such inducements. We know what New-York gains in all public movements, if not in all enterprises, by claiming and receiving the character of the 'Empire State.' In the same proportion, if not in a greater, Texas may hope to be the leading, as she was once the 'Lone Star' of the South. As a member of the national confederacy, she will exercise the influence which will secure to her the rights and the patronage that all the large states have heretofore enjoyed; and if the extent of her territory may not inspire a laudable pride, she will still stand out in the history of the age, as covering all the ground claimed, prior to the Florida Treaty in 1819, as the south-western limits of Louisiana, and thus be entitled to the glory of

having reclaimed, by her valor and enterprise, what had been necessarily yielded of the rich treasure acquired for the great valley, in the Treaty of 1803, by the sagacious statesmanship of Jefferson and Monroe.

In the second place, Texas offers eminent inducements in her climate. No consideration is, perhaps, more important to those seeking a country suitable for residence or enterprise, than the character of its climate. Health is the first, and comfort the next great object, in selecting a permanent abode. Tested by these qualities, Texas presents prominent inducements. Along the coast, wherever the position is free from stagnant fresh water, the most uninterrupted health prevails; and in the high table lands, commencing one hundred miles from the Gulf, and extending to the sources of the Trinity, Brazos, Colorado, Guadaloupe, San Antonio, Leona, Perdinalles, San Saba and Concho, the climate is as balmy and delicious as an altitude of five thousand feet from the sea gives in every district of the tropical region. The latitude reaching from the 26th to the 34th deg., guarantees mild winters, and the altitude from the sea, as well as the cooling breezes from the Rocky Mountains, secures comfort, and a moderate temperature during the summers. The delightful character of the climate is, indeed, becoming so generally known and appreciated, that already invalids are hastening hither from all the northern and middle states, to reinvigorate their feeble constitutions. Northers, it is true, sometimes contribute to the marring of this beautiful picture, though they continue but for a few days, and their uncomfortable effects are easily guarded against by suitable apparel and adequate houses. Some of the choicest fruits and grapes are indications of the climate. In our ancient city, founded as early as Philadelphia, we have as large and thrifty fig-trees as may be found in the tropics, and our peach is unrivalled—our climate for that fruit resembling that of Persia, its native country. The grape, at present, if not originally indigenous to the country around the high plain of El Paso, on the Rio Grande, is beginning to attract the horticulturists from every part of our country, and its wine has as just a claim as any other, to having been the 'Nectar' of the heathen gods. We regard Texas, then, on account of her favorable climate, as an inviting theatre for the enterprise of the immigrant and capitalist."

ART. V.—MARYLAND.

HISTORICAL EVENTS—GOVERNMENT—RESOURCES—IMPROVEMENTS—COMMERCE—CITY OF BALTIMORE, &C.

The State of Maryland derives its name from Henrietta Maria, the wife of Charles I., by whom a charter was granted to George Calvert, the first Lord Baltimore. The charter was issued on the 20th of June, 1632, and assigned to the grantee all the territory lying within certain prescribed limits, with extensive jurisdiction and powers of government over it. It was distinguished for its liberal and democratic character in an age which was proverbially illiberal and tyrannical. The law-making power was vested in the Lord Proprietary jointly with the people, or their representatives. The Proprietary could only act alone in cases of sudden emergency, when the people or their representatives could not be easily assembled. The right of exemption from taxation by the crown, except with their own consent, was clearly stipulated, together with many

other *privileges*, as they were then called; but which, in this enlightened age, are justly considered the inalienable rights of man. The fires of Protestantism, which were lighted up by Luther and Calvin, were burning with undiminished intensity in England as well as on the continent; and the severity and cruelty of the laws of England towards the Catholics, rendered it impossible for them to remain in their own country and enjoy that greatest of earthly blessings, the liberty to worship our Maker according to the dictates of our own conscience. It is well known that religious persecution and the love of gold were the inciting causes to all the emigrations from the old world to the new. But the early settlers of Maryland had to encounter difficulties of the same kind as those which compelled them to fly their country. Maryland having been included within the limits of the royal government of Virginia previous to the issuing of her charter, one William Claiborne obtained from the governor and council a license to trade with the Indians on the Chesapeake. Taking advantage of his position, he excited jealousies on the part of the Indians towards the Marylanders, by representing them as Spaniards and enemies. But he failed in his insidious attempts, and afterwards created an open rebellion, in which he was again thwarted, and compelled to fly first to Virginia, and then to England, where he was tried and convicted of treason.

The first General Assembly of the freemen of the colony was convened at the town of St. Mary's, in 1635. A considerable portion of the records of their proceedings was destroyed by fire, so that but little of them is known. The second Assembly was convened 1638. In some respects the constitutions of those early legislatures differed from those of the present day. The charter entitled every freeman to take a share in the making of those laws by which he was to be governed. As it was inconvenient to assemble at a given time and place, persons who were few and far between, each one was allowed to vote by proxy—so that it sometimes happened that one individual cast a dozen votes. The Proprietary, however, was invested with the power of summoning by special writ those whose presence he particularly desired. At a later period, two burgesses were elected from every hundred individuals; but each individual had the right, if he thought proper to exercise it, to claim his seat in the legislature. This right was, however, taken away by the General Assembly itself; and the council, the delegates from the several hundreds, and those who were summoned by special writ, constituted this body. The Proprietary (or governor) could obtain the control of the Assembly by adding to it a few of his personal friends. They all sat at first in one house, but were afterwards divided into two, called the upper and lower, somewhat like those of the Lords and Commons of Great Britain. The council appointed by the Lord Proprietary forming the upper, and the delegates of the people the lower. It was during this session that the colonists began to pave the way for the more just and equitable system which lies at the foundation of the present constitution of Maryland. The old leaven of aristocracy and monarchy which pervaded the government, began to receive a

blow which, by frequent repetition, compelled the ancient system to yield to the wants of the age and the stern spirit of liberty, which were so heroically displayed during the eventful crisis of the great revolution.

Lord Baltimore attempted to compel the colonists to accept the system of laws which he had digested, and to annul the acts of the legislature, because they were not framed by himself. The people were convinced that the Proprietary had no other than the veto power, and vindicated their rights by rejecting the whole system. The Lord Proprietary vetoed all of the bills that were passed, but afterwards abandoned it; preferring the welfare and prosperity of the colony to his own individual privileges, and sensible that the power of negativing any bill of which he disapproved, was quite sufficient to protect his rights and authority in the province.* But Maryland was destined to encounter other difficulties besides those of a civil character. Although religious freedom was expressly granted to them by the charter, no sooner had the contest between the king and parliament broke out in England, than the spirit of disaffection began to show itself in the colonies. The bigoted Puritans who were driven from Virginia on account of their intolerance, fomented the dissensions which began to prevail between the various Christian sects. Their strength increased with the success of the parliament, until finally they attempted the reduction of Maryland by additional reinforcements from England. Charles the First had been recently executed by the republican party. It was found at the next General Assembly that the partisans of the commonwealth were in the majority. Parliament had, in the meantime, passed an ordinance for the reduction of Maryland. Commissioners were appointed, who, with armed vessels and a regiment of soldiers, proceeded to wrest the government of the colony from the hands of the people, and required that they should conform to the laws of the commonwealth. After a determined resistance on the part of the Proprietary, his power was overthrown; but not until a bloody battle had been fought, and some of the most distinguished men of the colony had been killed. As soon as they took possession of the province, an Assembly was called, and it was prohibited that any Catholic or royalist should vote for or sit therein as a delegate. Their first act was to pass a law, declaring that the members of the Catholic Church would not be protected in the province, and at the same time denouncing "prelacy," as they denominated the Church of England. The Puritan rule lasted for about six years, when Cromwell died, and Charles II. was restored to the throne of his ancestors. The government of the Lord Proprietary was again renewed in Maryland, but it was destined to undergo many severe trials before it was enabled to continue the even tenor of its way. The same conspiracy that had overthrown the power of the Puritans, set about undermining that of the Lord Proprietary. At the session of 1659, the House of Delegates demanded that the governor and council

* Bozman.

should no longer sit as an upper house, and claimed for itself the rights of supreme judicial and legislative power. The governor, who had been appointed (in the absence of Lord Baltimore) with two of his council, took his seat in the lower house. "The upper house was then declared to be dissolved, and the governor having resigned his commission from the Lord Proprietary into the hands of the Assembly, accepted from that body a new one in their own name and by their own authority. To secure obedience to this new and almost republican government, an act was passed declaring it to be a felony to disturb the existing order of things, and the people were commanded by proclamation to acknowledge no authority except that which came immediately from the Assembly or from the king."

For about thirty years after these events, the government preserved a character of stability. The colony increased in inhabitants, productions and commerce, and enjoyed all those blessings which flow from a peaceful and prosperous rule. The historian apologizes for the dull and uninteresting epoch in which any event is deemed worthy of being recorded. Gibbon makes the same apology in treating of the reign of the Antonines. There were only a few sanguinary battles, a few terrible crimes or astounding calamities; civil wars were without bloodshed, and the colony devoted itself to the increase of its internal prosperity. A mint was established for coining shillings; and taxes, in the shape of tobacco, were imposed, for the proper maintenance of the government. "The mode of payment of port duties is worthy of notice, as indicating the wants of the times. Every vessel having a flush deck fore and aft, coming to trade in the province, was compelled to pay one half pound of powder and three pounds of shot for every ton burthen. To insure the circulation of the new coinage, every householder was compelled to take from the mint ten shillings, for each taxable person in his family, for which he was to pay in tobacco, at the rate of two pence per pound." When Philip Calvert assumed the government of the colony, in 1660, there were twelve thousand inhabitants. It increased to sixteen thousand in the next five years. In 1671, it amounted to twenty thousand. They began about this time to enlarge the number of counties. There were only a few towns; St. Mary's, and Annapolis, were the only ones of any importance. A majority of the people were planters and farmers. They obtained their manufactured articles from the mother country. At the session of 1663, the Assembly were engaged in laying the foundation of a system of laws, many of which continue to exist to the present day. The growing wealth and importance of Maryland excited the avarice of Charles II. James II. ordered a writ of *quo warranto* to be issued, to show cause why the charter should not be forfeited. But Charles died, and James was deposed. William and Mary ascended the throne. Soon after this event, a conspiracy was formed to overturn the government, and to abolish the Catholic religion. The king sustained the acts of the revolution, and the province continued under the administration of the Convention of the people, who requested the king to take the government of the colony into his own hands.

Sir Lionel Copley was sent over to take command of the province as governor. The Convention was dissolved, and a General Assembly was summoned to meet at the city of St. Mary's. Its acts of severity towards the Catholics and Dissenters are blots upon the history of this period. The royal dominion in Maryland lasted for twenty-five years. Nothing is worthy of particular note except that the crown had already begun to make encroachments upon the liberty of the people. The British Parliament desired to destroy the charter, and to effect the reduction of Maryland, as well as the other colonies of Massachusetts, New-Hampshire, Rhode Island, Connecticut, the Jerseys and Pennsylvania. They charged Pennsylvania with being a receptacle of runaway slaves, and the Jerseys with being the resort of pirates. In 1715, the reins of government were again surrendered to Lord Baltimore, and the Parliament again attempted to take away their charter; but the colonies were successful in remonstrating against the injustice of it. The struggle between the aristocracy and the democracy began to be more decided than ever. Although there was no actual breach between them, a war of paper bullets preceded that of lead. Petitions and protests, resolutions, addresses and proclamations ensued for several years, which resulted in the triumph of the democracy. In 1739, the Assembly resolved that the duties levied by the Proprietary were unjust and oppressive; and protested against certain usurpations and privileges claimed in the creation of new offices, without the consent of the Assembly. The tonnage of tobacco duties were a standing subject of complaint and resistance between the people and the Proprietary, until the Stamp Act and Tea Duties "closed all controversies and removed all grievances." In 1744, a treaty was concluded between commissioners appointed by the governor and a powerful tribe of Indians called the Six Nations, by which three hundred pounds of current money was agreed to be paid to them, on condition that they would relinquish all claims to any territory within the limits of Maryland. The Assembly projected the building of towns and cities, but very few of them grew to any importance. The cities of Baltimore, Annapolis, and Frederick, are the only ones that are now known. The population of the province had begun to increase rapidly. In 1748, the number of inhabitants was estimated at 130,000 souls. It increased in five years after to 154,188. The mineral and agricultural resources of the soil began to be developed, and an establishment was made for the manufactory of linen and woolen stuffs for common use, and for the clothing of servants and slaves. Grants of land were made to those who would erect watermills and forges for the working of the copper mines. The making of wine was also attempted. Wheat and Indian corn were largely exported, but tobacco was the principal staple. Free schools were established and supported by general taxation. The currency was in great disorder. An issue of paper money was resorted to on the part of the government, but ultimately failed. There were also disputes with regard to her boundaries, which have never been settled to the satisfaction of the people of Maryland. There is nothing worthy of particular mention from this time until the revolution.

There were frequent contests between the English and the French, who had conceived the idea of connecting Canada with Louisiana, by constructing a chain of forts along the Mississippi and Ohio rivers, which passed through a territory to which the English laid claim. As Virginia was principally interested in the controversy, the governor dispatched Washington to protest against the proceedings of the French commandant. What courage, zeal and perseverance he displayed in the discharge of his duty, and what unfading glory he obtained not long after, form one of the brightest pages in the annals of our country, and is indelibly impressed on the mind of every American citizen.

The two principles of aristocracy and democracy which were contained in the original charter, began to be developed in broader and more decided characters. The right of taxation which was claimed by the upper house was denied by the representatives of the people, who claimed the exclusive privilege of framing bills for raising money. Meanwhile the colony was rapidly increasing in population, which spread themselves to the utmost limits of the province. The soil was rich, and intersected by navigable streams, and possessing great mineral resources, which only required industry and independence to develop to the fullest extent. Maryland took an active part in opposing the stamp act as well as the duty on tea. Her heroic conduct during the war of the Revolution is so well known, that it is unnecessary to dwell upon it. Suffice it to say, that no state was more patriotic, and none rendered more distinguished services in obtaining our independence. After the Revolution was over, the finances of the country were in a very disordered condition. The treasury of the United States was empty. Congress was burdened with a debt of forty-two millions of dollars, and several of the states were considerably involved. Maryland was one of the first states that passed a law authorizing Congress to levy the required duties on exports and imports, to cover the interest of the public debt. With a view to enable her to recover from the effects of the late struggle, a company was formed for the purpose of constructing a canal from the Pennsylvania line along the Susquehanna to the tide water, and incorporated in 1784 under the name of the Proprietors of the Susquehanna Canal. The Potomac Company was soon after organized to open a convenient route for travel and transportation between the Atlantic and the growing settlements of the West. Virginia and Maryland united in this enterprise, and General Washington was chosen the first President. The company was afterwards merged in the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal Company. A scheme was also proposed for effecting an inland communication between the Delaware and Chesapeake Bay. The city of Baltimore, about this time, received a new impulse, and the enterprise of its merchants began to display itself in its increasing commerce and population. In 1782, its population was 8,000 inhabitants; it now numbers about 167,000, and is the third city in the Union. The cause of science and learning were not neglected. A college was established at Chestertown, called Washington College, and another in connection with it at Annapolis, called "St. John's

College." The great subject of political interest at this time was the formation of the Federal Constitution.* The democratic party was inclined to strengthen the state authority at the expense of the general government, or more properly speaking, was not willing to surrender to the general government more power than was necessary to carry its provisions into operation. The federal party were for consolidating the government, in order to preserve security at home, and respect from abroad. Whether the Constitution will continue to endure the severe shocks it has already received, and which is now agitating the Republic to its centre, remains to be seen. Nothing but a strict adherence to its provisions, and a spirit of mutual forbearance, will preserve it as the palladium of our safety. *Esto perpetua.* In 1790, the District of Columbia was ceded by Maryland and Virginia to the United States, of which Washington was to be the seat of government. A contest had arisen in Maryland for the enlargement of the right of suffrage. It became the leading topic in state politics, and elections turned upon it. After long and angry discussions in the session of 1802, the confirmatory act was passed. That odious restriction upon the freedom of elections, the *viva voce* vote, was removed, and the ballot-box substituted in its place. The old judicial system was also abolished, and the present one adopted.

During the war of 1812, Maryland acted with her usual gallantry; and the battle of Bladensburg and North Point will be ever memorable in the annals of our country. After the war, she turned her attention to internal improvements. The public schools were to be supported by a permanent fund, which the banks agreed to pay, on the renewal of their respective charters. The system was afterwards superseded by the formation of the primary school organization in 1825,—the organization of which was considerably enlarged. We copy the following remarks from McSherre's History of Maryland, a work recently published, and of high authority:

"The immense mineral resources of Western Maryland, the rich mines of iron ore, and the inexhaustible supply of coal, which its mountains contained, made it a matter of peculiar importance to Maryland, that the designs of the Potomac Company should be completed, irrespective of the growing trade of the West. A water communication into the heart of the mineral region, affording the cheapest means of transportation of such heavy articles, was almost absolutely necessary to develop fully its immense wealth, and pour it into the markets of the Atlantic. But it was found, in progress of time, after repeated efforts, that the mode of navigation proposed by the Potomac Company was insufficient and unworthy of the great object in view—the securing the trade of the West; and another and nobler work was contemplated. It was proposed that the Potomac Company should surrender its privileges to a new corporation, to be formed for the purpose of making a canal along the river to its head, and thence to the waters of the Ohio. The legislature of Maryland

* A Convention is now in session in Maryland, for the purpose of framing a new stat constitution, which will be submitted to the people for ratification the present month.

approved of the design, and a Convention was called at the city of Washington, of delegates to be chosen by the people of the different counties in Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania, to consider the best means for effecting so desirable an object. Delegates from fourteen counties in Virginia, one in Pennsylvania, and eight in Maryland, besides a full representation from each of the district cities, attended on the 23d of November, 1823. It was resolved that a company should be formed to construct a navigable canal by Cumberland, to the coal banks, on the eastern side of the Alleghanies, and thence, as soon as practicable, to the highest point of navigation on the Ohio, or Monongahela; and, as it was contemplated to be finished by the joint efforts of the United States government, Maryland, Virginia, Pennsylvania, and the subscriptions of private stockholders, it was proposed to designate it as "the Union Canal;" but its present name, the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, was finally adopted. During the sessions of the Convention, a communication was presented from two delegates from Ohio, proposing a further extension of the work, by a canal from the Ohio, through that state, to the great lakes on the north; which portion of the design was finally, by the state, unaided.

"In conformity with the recommendations of this body, an act was passed by Virginia, on the 27th of January, 1824, and subsequently confirmed by Maryland, Pennsylvania, and the United States, to incorporate the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal Company. Maryland, wisely looking to the interest of its commercial metropolis, claimed and obtained the right of constructing, through any portion of the District of Columbia, a lateral canal, to terminate at the city of Baltimore. It further insisted on the power, and maintained the expediency of the general government's fostering this great national work, and aiding in its completion. It authorized the state treasurer, in its name, to subscribe five thousand shares of stock, at one hundred dollars per share, on certain conditions.

"The necessary legislation having been thus effected, a second Convention assembled at Washington, composed of numerous delegates from Ohio, Pennsylvania, Maryland and Virginia, who approved of the charter thus tendered to them. The books were opened by the commissioners appointed for that purpose; and the requisite amount of stock having been taken, the stockholders, in June, 1828, organized and formally accepted the charter. The United States subscribed for ten thousand shares of stock, and Congress authorized the district cities to become stockholders. They accordingly took an aggregate of 15,000 shares. The amount of the subscriptions of Virginia was only seven hundred and seventy-seven shares. These subscriptions, together with the stock taken by individuals, brought the sum total to thirty-six thousand and eighty-nine shares, being a capital of $3,608,900. It had been sanguinely estimated, that the whole work could be completed to Cumberland on the scale at first contemplated —forty feet wide at top, twenty-eight feet at bottom, and four feet deep, for $4,400,000. The dimensions, however, were afterwards increased, at the suggestion of the United States government, to six

feet in depth; and in width, ranging from sixty to fifty feet. The route was immediately selected, and the work commenced.

While these measures were in progress, the people of Baltimore began to entertain fears that the work would interfere with their prosperity, and build up the district cities at their expense. They doubted the feasibility of constructing the lateral canal; and a rail-road to the waters of the Ohio was determined upon. In February, 1827, a public meeting was called in the city, and a memorial preferred at once to the legislature. It was asserted, that the route of the rail-road was the only practicable one—that is, shorter by one hundred and forty miles than that by the canal, and that it could be opened at an expense less by seven millions of dollars. In ten days after the application, a charter was granted by the legislature.

The rail-road company were allowed to pass along on a line parallel with the canal to Harper's Ferry, at which point it crossed to the Virginia side. The state subscribed for five thousand shares of its stock, and authorized the city of Baltimore to subscribe for thirty thousand shares. Not long after, "The Baltimore and Susquehanna Rail-Road" was projected from Baltimore to York. A branch of the Baltimore and Ohio road was turned towards Washington, and a lateral road to Annapolis was connected with it. The failure of the canal, beyond Harper's Ferry, for want of funds to continue it, rendered it necessary for the legislature to take the matter into consideration. In 1835, it provided for a subscription of three millions to the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal—three millions to the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road—half a million to the Maryland Cross-cut Canal to Baltimore—half a million to the Annapolis and Potomac Canal—and one million to the Eastern Shore Rail-road. The amount of the state's interest in the canal in 1839 had swollen up to the sum of $7,197,000. The Tide Water Canal Company, and the York and Wrightsville Road, was supported by state bonds, for which the company's tolls were pledged.

"Agricultural societies were formed throughout the counties—a state association was assembled—an excellent journal* established to advocate the cause of the noblest of all pursuits—the education of the soil. Men of enterprise turned their attention to the restoration of these barren wastes, and soon presented to the astonished eye of advocates of the ancient system, the "old fields suddenly renovated by the power of lime and guano, and composts judiciously applied, and blooming and producing with something like their pristine fertility. The spirit of improvement did not rest with these. The man of smaller means imitated their example, and profited by their experience. The barren wastes of the last generation are becoming smiling fields, groaning with yellow harvests, and rich meadows waving with sweet-scented grasses; the voices of a thriving rural population sound like music once more in the long-deserted ranges; and

* The death of John S. Skinner, formerly editor of the "Sportsman's Magazine," is much lamented throughout the agricultural world. He was recently the editor of a journal, called "the Plough, the Loom and the Anvil." We learn that a monument is about to be erected to his memory.

the last "old field" of Maryland will soon yield to the onward progress of agricultural improvement."

Although Maryland is among the small states of the Union in point of territorial dimensions, her geographical position is one of the best. She is surrounded by rivers and bays which discharge the products of several states into her bosom. Her soil is rich and fertile in the growth of grain and tobacco; and, what is strange, the mineral resources of copper, iron, coal, and even gold, are to be found within her borders. It is well known that lands which abound in mineral ores, are generally very barren.

The property of the state consists of the following items :—

PRODUCTIVE PROPERTY OF MARYLAND.

Stocks of the Farmers' Bank of Maryland	$190,000 00
" Bank of Baltimore	174,000 00
" Mechanics' Bank of Baltimore	46,500 00
" Union Bank of Maryland	31,800 00
" Hagerstown Bank	25,000 00
" Commercial and Farmers' Bank of Baltimore	21,666 66
" Farmers' and Merchants' Bank of Baltimore	12,000 00
" Marine Bank of Baltimore	10,000 00
" Franklin Bank of Baltimore	7,500 00
" Baltimore and Ohio R. R. Company	1,050,000 00
" Baltimore and Frederickton Turnpike Road Co.	10,000 00
" Baltimore and Yorktown Turnpike " "	5,000 00
" Union Manufacturing Company	10,000 00
Bonds of the Susquehanna and Tide-water Canals	$1,000,000 00
Loan to the Trustees of Charlotte Hall School	2,666 77
Due from sheriffs, clerks, collectors, inspectors, and auctioneers	662,813 68
Bonds of the Susquehanna and Tide-water Canal Companies	192,500 00
Total production	$3,451,477 11

UNPRODUCTIVE PROPERTY OF MARYLAND.

Bonds of the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal Company	$2,000,000 00
" Baltimore and Susquehanna Rail-road Company	1,884,045 29
Loan to the President and Directors of the Potomac Company	30,000 00
Interest thereon to 16th of May, 1825	13,280 00
Stock of the Potomac Company	120,444 44
" Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road Company	3,000,000 90
" Chesapeake and Ohio Canal Company	5,000,000 00
" Chesapeake and Delaware Canal Company	50,000 00
" Baltimore and Susquehanna Rail-road Company	100,000 00
" Annapolis and Elk Ridge Rail-road Company	299,378 46
" Eastern Shore Rail-road Company	86,862 00
" Nanticoke Bridge Company	4,333 33
" Chesapeake Steam-Towing Company	25,000 00
Stock of the Elkton Bank of Maryland	10,000 00
Bonds installed and not installed, exclusive of interest	10,759 33
Due from the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal Company, for interest,	3,274,318 57
" Baltimore and Susquehanna R. R. Co., for interest	925,905 76
Penitentiary, for premium, principal and interest	59,096 64
Total unproductive	$16,999,623 95
Grand total	20,442,071 06

PUBLIC DEBT OF MARYLAND.

Public debt on the 30th of September, 1849		$16,164,813 44
Deduct sterling bonds held by the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road Company	$3,200,000 00	
Tobacco loan	161,984 15	
Interest bonds redeemed	260,118 38	
Sinking fund	1,892,537 61	
		$5,514,640 14
Total public debt to be redeemed		$10,650,173 30

The population of Maryland, according to the census of 1850, the returns of which have been lately completed, shows the following results in comparison with that of 1840:

POPULATION OF MARYLAND.*

Counties.	1850. White Population.	1850. Colored. Free.	1850. Colored. Slaves.	Total Population. 1850.	Total Population. 1840.
Alleghany	21,752	307	724	22,873	15,740
Anne Arundel	16,542	4,602	11,244	32,388	29,535
Baltimore City	141,441	24,625	2,946	169,012	102,513
Baltimore County	34,222	3,600	3,767	41,589	32,067
Carroll	14,644	—	479	15,123	17,245
Caroline	6,096	2,788	808	9,692	7,868
Calvert	3,610	1,520	4,488	9,618	9,095
Cecil	15,482	2,612	843	18,937	17,362
Charles	5,665	913	9,584	16,162	16,012
Dorchester	10,788	3,803	4,282	18,873	18,809
Frederick	31,595	3,637	3,261	38,493	34,983
Harford	14,414	2,785	2,166	19,365	16,901
Kent	5,598	3,132	2,627	11,357	10,840
Montgomery	9,435	1,311	5,114	15,860	14,659
Prince George	8,702	1,138	11,510	21,350	19,483
Queen Anne	7,040	3,174	4,271	14,485	12,525
St. Mary's	6,280	1,590	5,811	13,681	13,244
Somerset	13,417	3,453	5.588	22,458	19,504
Talbot	7,087	2,590	4,134	13,811	12,103
Washington	26,969	1,885	2,089	30,943	28,862
Worcester	11,824	3,593	3,453	18,870	18,253
Total	412,803	73,158	89,178	575,140	467,567

The above table shows an increase in the population of the state during the past ten years, of 107,573. The increase in the whole state during the ten years between 1830 and 1840, was but 20,527, whilst the increase in Baltimore alone was 21,888; so that, in fact, the population of the state, leaving the commercial emporium out of the question, had decreased during that decade, 1,361. Deducting the increase in Baltimore from the whole increase, as shown by the present census, and there is left, as the increase for the counties alone, 41,004.

The total free black population of the state, as shown above, is now 73,158; in 1840, it was 61,937—showing an increase of 11,221.

In 1840, the whole number of slaves in the state was 89,719, whilst there are now but 89,178—showing a decrease of 541.

The increase of population in Baltimore City is 66,499,—which is nearly two-thirds of the whole increase of the state. Baltimore County shows the next greatest increase, being 9,522; Alleghany next, 7,133; Frederick next, being 3,510; and Somerset next, 2,954. Carroll County, it will be seen, is the only county in the state that

* Baltimore Sun.

shows a decrease in its population, having fallen off 2,122 since the last census. This decrease has doubtless been caused by its neglect to avail itself of a direct rail-road connection from the heart of the county with Baltimore City.

According to the last report of the Secretary of the Treasury upon the Banking System of the United States, the banking capital of Maryland was, in—

1837	$10,438,655	1845	$8,852,332
1840	10,526,494	1847	7,999,004
1841	10,214,908	1848	8,541,836
1842	10,709,332	1849	8,557,732
1843	9,746,279	1850	8,704,711
1844	9,540,374		

BANKS IN MARYLAND, 1851.*

Location.	*Name of Bank.*	*President.*	*Cashier.*	*Capital.*
Annapolis	Farmers' B'k of Md.	George Wells	Thomas Franklin	298,000
Cumberland	Cumberland Bank	David Shriver	Joseph Shriver	112,937
"	Mineral Bank	Thomas J. McKaig	Joseph H. Tucker	169,137
Ellicott's Mills	Patapsco Bank	Thomas B. Dorsey	B. U. Campbell	125,000
Easton	Farmers' B'k, (Br'ch)	Theo. R. Lockerman	Richard Thomas	271,575
Frederick	" "	Richard Potts	Godfrey Koontz	250,000
"	Fa'rs & Mechanics'.	William Tyler	Thomas W. Morgan	125,430
"	Frederick Co. B'k	Alexander B. Hanson	James H. Williams	150,000
Hagerstown	Hagerstown Bank	Alexander Neil	Elie Beatty	250,000
Port Deposit	Cecil Bank	Jonathan Tome	A. Anderson	50,000
Westminster	B'k of Westminster.	Isaac Shriver	John Fisher	60,000
"	Far's & Mechanics'.	Jacob Matthias	Jacob Reese	50,000
Williamsport	Washington Co. B'k	Daniel Weisel	John Van Lear, Jr.	135,000
Country	Total, 12 Banks	Circulation, $1,200,000	Specie $400,000.	Capital $1,997,079
Baltimore-st	Bank of Baltimore	James H. McCulloh	C. C. Jamison	1,200,000
North-street	Chesapeake Bank	John S. Gittings	James Lownds	311,473
Baltimore-st	Citizens' Bank	Adam Denmead	Wm. L. Richardson	100,000
Howard-street	Comm'l & Farmers'.	Thomas Meredith	Trueman Cross	512,560
South-street	Far'rs & Merchants'	J. Hanson Thomas	John Loney	393,560
"	Farmers' & Planters'	William E. Mahew	Thomas B. Rutter	600,625
North-street	Franklin Bank	John J. Donaldson	Aquila P. Giles	301,850
Gay-street	Marine Bank	Jacob Bier	Philip Littig, Jr	370,000
N'th Calvert-st	Mechanics' Bank	John B. Morris	James W. Allnut	593,896
Gay-street	Merchants' Bank	James Swan	Daniel Sprigg	1,500,000
North Chas-st	Union Bank of Md.	John M. Gordon	Robert Mickle	916,350
Eutaw-street	Western Bank	Chaunce Brooks	James H. Carter	400,000
City	Total, 12 Banks	Circulation, $2,060,000	Specie $2,127,000.	Cap'l $7,140,316
	Grand total			$9,137,395

According to the late report of the Manufacturers' Convention of Maryland, the number of cotton factories in the state the present year, is 28.

FOREIGN TRADE OF MARYLAND.

Years.	*Imports.*	*Years.*	*Exports.*
1840	4,910,746	1840	5,768,768
1841	6,101,313	1841	4,947,166
1842	4,417,978	1842	4,904,766
1843	2,479,132	1843	2,820,814
1844	3,917,750	1844	5,133,169
1845	3,741,804	1845	5,221,977
1846	4,042,915	1846	6,979,055
1848	5,348,643	1848	7,129,782
1849	8,000,660	1849	4,976,000
1850	6,124,201	1850	6,589,481

* Banker's Magazine.

POPULATION OF BALTIMORE.

Years.	Slaves.	Free Colored.	White.	Total.
1790	1,255	323	11,925	13,503
1800	2,843	2,771	20,900	26,514
1810	4,672	5,671	36,212	46,555
1820	4,357	10,326	48,855	62,738
1830	4,120	14,790	51,710	70,620
1840	3,212	17,980	81,321	102,513
1850	2,946	24,625	141,441	169,012

In its increase in wealth, Baltimore has kept pace with the increase of its population. In 1808, the value of taxable property in the city was computed at $2,522,780. The following is the official estimate of the value of the property, and the number of houses erected in the city for the last six years:*

Years.	Real and Personal Property, Baltimore.	No. Houses Erected.
1844	53,790,170	609
1845	53,750,496	1,508
1846	54,851,217	—
1847	72,079,322	2,006
1848	74,228,276	1,920
1849	78,252,588	1,894
1850	80,237,960	—

The city now contains upwards of an hundred churches, three universities, four colleges, and many beautiful and commodious public buildings. To notice these, however, further than they affect the commercial, or mercantile character of the city, is no part of the design of this article. The Merchants' Exchange, at the corner of Gay and Lombard streets, is a spacious building, 225 feet long by 141 feet wide, and contains, besides the usual reading-room, and the room for the meeting of the merchants, the custom-house, bank, telegraphic offices, a hotel, &c. The room in which the merchants' meetings are held is fifty-three feet square, has upon its east and west sides colonnades, the columns of which are of fine Italian marble, each a single block, and it is lighted by a dome 115 feet above the street.

The total value of goods shipped from Baltimore during the year ending June 30th, 1849, was $8,000,600; of which $7,786,695 were of articles of domestic produce, and $213,965 of foreign articles. The exports were in 634 vessels, with a tonnage of 149,928 tons, and employing 6,335 men in their navigation. Of the above, 491 vessels were American, and 145 under the flags of eighteen different foreign nations.

The foreign imports into Baltimore during the same time were valued at $4,976,731, of which $4,613,219 were in American vessels. The foreign imports were received in 484 vessels, of the tonnage of 110,068, and manned by 4,581 men.

The total number of vessels owned and registered at Baltimore on the 30th of June, 1849, was 134,025.35 tons—53,624.75 tons being engaged in coasting, and 11,464.28 tons in steam navigation. In the same year there were built in Baltimore 9 ships and barks, 8 brigs, 41 schooners, 5 steamers, with the aggregate tonnage of 12,199.66 tons.†

* See De Bow's Review for November, 1850, Art. "Baltimore."

† We acknowledge our indebtedness to Thomas O'Donnell, Bookseller, New-Orleans, for the copy of McSherry's History of Maryland, reviewed in this article.

ART. VI.—PROFESSOR DEW'S ESSAYS ON SLAVERY.

[HAVING republished all the standard authorities upon the subject of *slavery*, which are of highest repute at the South, we have been unable until now to obtain a copy of the celebrated Essays of Prof. Dew, of Virginia, but gladly add them to our collections, which the reader will find interspersed through the volumes of the Review for several years past. These Essays are in review of the course of the Virginia Legislature in 1831–'32, in regard to emancipation. They are almost entirely out of print, and, we believe, no more acceptable service could be done to the South by us, than their preservation in a form for study and future reference.]—ED.

ORIGIN OF SLAVERY, AND ITS EFFECTS ON THE PROGRESS OF CIVILIZATION.

Upon an examination of the nature of man, we find him to be almost entirely the creature of circumstances—his habits and sentiments are, in a great measure, the growth of adventitious causes—hence the endless variety and condition of our species. We are almost ever disposed, however, to identify the course of nature with the progress of events in our own narrow contracted sphere; we look upon any deviation from the constant round in which *we* have been spinning out the thread of our existence, as a departure from nature's great system; and from a known principle of our nature, our first impulse is to condemn. It is thus that the man born and nurtured in the lap of freedom, looks upon slavery as unnatural and horrible; and if he be not instructed upon the subject, is sure to think that so unnatural a condition could never exist but in few countries or ages—in violation of every law of justice and humanity; and he is almost disposed to implore the divine wrath to shower down the consuming fire of heaven on the Sodoms and Gomorrahs of the world, where this unjust practice prevails.

But when he examines into the past condition of mankind, he stands amazed at the fact which history developes to his view. "Almost every page of ancient history," says Wallace, in his Dissertation on the Numbers of Mankind, "demonstrates the great multitude of slaves; which gives occasion to a melancholy reflection, that the world, when best peopled, was not a world of freemen, but of slaves."* "And in every age and country, until times comparatively recent," says Hallam, "personal servitude appears to have been the lot of a large, perhaps the greater portion, of mankind."†

Slavery was established and sanctioned by Divine authority, among even the elect of Heaven—the favored children of Israel. Abraham, the founder of this interesting nation, and the chosen servant of the Lord, was the owner of *hundreds* of slaves;—that magnificent shrine, the Temple of Solomon, was reared by the hands of slaves. Egypt's venerable and enduring piles were reared by similar hands. Slavery existed in Assyria and Babylon. The ten tribes of Israel were carried off in bondage to the former, by Shalmanezar, and the two tribes of Judah were subsequently carried in triumph by Nebuchadnezzar to beautify and adorn the latter. Ancient Phœnicia and Carthage had slaves—the Greeks and Trojans at the siege of Troy had slaves—Athens, and Sparta, and

* P. 93, Edinburgh edition.
† Middle Ages, vol. i., page 120, Philadelphia edition.

Thebes, indeed the whole Grecian and Roman worlds, had more slaves than freemen. And in those ages which succeeded the extinction of the Roman Empire in the west, "*Servi*, or slaves," says Dr. Robertson, "seem to have been the most numerous class."* Even in this day of civilization, and the regeneration of governments, slavery is far from being confined to our hemisphere alone. The serf and labor rents prevalent throughout the whole of eastern Europe, and a portion of western Asia; and the riot rents throughout the extensive and over-populated countries of the East, and over the dominions of the Porte in Europe, Asia, and Africa, but too conclusively mark the existence of slavery over those boundless regions. And when we turn to the vast continent of Africa, we find slavery, in all its most horrid forms, existing throughout its whole extent—the slaves being at least three times more numerous than the freemen; so that, looking to the whole world, we may, even now, with confidence assert, that slaves, or those whose condition is infinitely worse, form, by far, the largest portion of the human race!

Well, then, may we here pause, and inquire a moment—for it is surely worthy of inquiry—how has slavery arisen, and thus spread over our globe? We shall not pretend to enumerate accurately, and in detail, all the causes which have led to slavery; but we believe the principal may be summed up under the following heads:—1st. Laws of War. 2d. State of Property and Feebleness of Government. 3d. Bargain and Sale; and 4th. Crime.

1st. *Laws of War.*—There is no circumstance which more honorably and creditably characterizes modern warfare, than the humanity with which it is waged, and the mildness with which captives are treated. Civilized nations, with but few exceptions, now act in complete conformity with the wise rule laid down by Grotius, "that in war we have a right only to the use of those means which have a connection, *morally necessary*, with the end in view." Consequently, we have no just right, where this rule is adhered to by our adversary, to enslave or put to death enemies *non-combatant*, who may be in our possession—for this, in modern times, among civilized nations, is not *morally necessary* to the attainment of the end in view. On the contrary, if such a practice were commenced now, it would only increase the calamities of the belligerents, by converting their wars into wars of extermination, or rapine, and plunder—terminated, generally, with infinitely less advantage, and more difficulty to each of the parties. But humane and advantageous as this mitigated practice appears, we are not to suppose it universal, or that it has obtained in all ages. On the contrary, it is the growth of modern civilization, and has been confined in a great measure to civilized Europe and its colonies.

Writers on the progress of society, designate three stages in which man has been found to exist. First, the hunting or fishing state—second, the pastoral—third, the agricultural. Man in the hunting state, has ever been found to wage war in the most cruel and implacable manner, extermination being the object of the belligerent tribes. Never has there been a finer field presented to the philosopher, for a complete investigation of the character of any portion of our species, than the whole American hemisphere presented for the complete investigation of the character of savages in the hunting and fishing state.

Dr. Robertson has given us a most appalling description of the cruelties with which savage warfare was waged throughout the whole continent of America, and the barbarous manner in which prisoners were

* See Robertson's Works, vol. iii., page 186.

everywhere put to death. He justly observes, that "the bare description is enough to chill the heart with horror, wherever men have been accustomed, by milder institutions, to respect their species, and to melt into tenderness at the sight of human sufferings. The prisoners are tied naked to a stake, but so as to be at liberty to move around it. All who are present, men, women, and children, rush upon them like furies. Every species of torture is applied that the rancor of revenge can invent; some burn their limbs with red hot iron, some mangle their bodies with knives, others tear their flesh from their bones, pluck out their nails by the roots, and rend and twist their sinews. Nothing sets bounds to their rage but the dread of abridging the duration of their vengeance by hastening the death of the sufferers; and such is their cruel ingenuity in tormenting, that by avoiding industriously to hurt any vital part, they often prolong the scene of anguish for several days."*

Let us now inquire into the cause of such barbarous practices, and we shall find that they must be imputed principally to the passion of revenge. In the language of the same eloquent writer whom we have just quoted: "in small communities every man is touched with the injury or affront offered to the body of which he is a member, as if it were a personal attack on his own honor and safety. War, which, between extensive kingdoms, is carried on with little animosity, is prosecuted by small tribes with all the rancor of a private quarrel. When polished nations have obtained the glory of victory, or have acquired an addition of territory, they may terminate a war with honor. But savages are not satisfied, until they extirpate the community which is the object of their hatred. They fight not to conquer, but destroy."—"The desire of vengeance is the first and almost the only principle which a savage instils into the minds of his children. The desire of vengeance which takes possession of the hearts of savages, resembles the instinctive rage of an animal, rather than the passion of a man."† Unfortunately, too, interest conspires with the desire of revenge, to render savage warfare horrible. The wants of the savage, it is true, are few and simple; but limited as they are, according to their mode of life, it is extremely difficult to supply them. Hunting and fishing afford at best a very precarious subsistence. Throughout the extensive regions of America, population was found to be most sparsely scattered, but thin as it was, it was most wretchedly and scantily supplied with provisions. Under these circumstances, prisoners of war could not be kept, for the feeding of them would be sure to produce a famine.‡ They would not be sent back to their tribe, for that would strengthen the enemy. They could not even make slaves of them, for their labor would have been worthless. Death, then, was unfortunately the punishment, which was prompted both by interest and revenge. And accordingly, throughout the whole continent of America, we find, but with one or two exceptions, that this was the dreadful fate which awaited the prisoners of all classes, men, women, and children. In fact, this has been the practice of war, wherever man was found in the first stages of society—living on the precarious subsistence of the chase. The savages of the islands of Andaman, in the east, supposed by many to be lowest in the scale of civilization, of Van Dieman's land, of New-Holland and of the islands of the South Pacific,§ are all alike—they all agree in the

* See Robertson's America, Phil. ed, vol. i, p. 197.

† See Robertson's America, vol. i, pp. 192, 193.

‡ "If a few Spaniards settled in any district, such a small addition of supernumerary mouths soon exhausted their scanty store, and brought on famine.—*Robertson*, 182.

§ Captain Cook says, of the natives in the neighborhood of Queen Charlotte's Sound, "If I had followed the advice of all our pretended friends, I might have extirpated the

practice of exterminating enemies by the most perfidious and cruel conduct; and, throughout many extensive regions, the horrid practice of feasting on the murdered prisoners prevailed.*

What is there, let us ask, which is calculated to arrest this horrid practice, and to communicate an impulse towards civilization? Strange as it may sound in modern ears, it is the institution of property and the existence of slavery. Judging from the universality of the fact, we may assert that domestic slavery seems to be the only means of fixing the wanderer to the soil, moderating his savage temper, mitigating the horrors of war, and abolishing the practice of murdering the captives. In the pure hunting state, man has little idea of property, and consequently there is little room for distinction, except what arises from personal qualities. People in this state retain, therefore, a high sense of equality and independence. It is a singular fact, that the two extremes of society are most favorable to liberty and equality—the most savage and the most refined and enlightened—the former, in consequence of the absence of the institution of property, and the latter, from the diffusion of knowledge, and the consequent capability of self-government. The former is characterized by a wild, licentious independence, totally subversive of all order and tranquillity, and the latter by a well-ordered, well-established liberty, which, while it leaves to each the enjoyment of the fruits of his industry, secures him against the lawless violence and rapine of his neighbors. Throughout the whole American continent, this equality and savage independence seem to have prevailed, except in the comparatively great kingdoms of Mexico and Peru, where the right to property was established.

So soon as private right to property is established, slavery commences; and with the institution of slavery the cruelties of war begin to diminish. The chief finds it to his interest to make slaves of his captives, rather than put them to death. This system commences with the shepherd state, and is consummated in the agricultural; slavery, therefore, seems to be the chief means of mitigating the horrors of war. Accordingly, wherever among barbarous nations they have so far advanced in civilization as to understand the use which may be made of captives, by converting them into slaves, there the cruelties of war are found to be lessened.

Throughout the whole continent of Africa, in consequence of the universal prevalence of slavery, war is not conducted with the same barbarous ferocity as by the American Indian. And hence it happens, that some nations become most cruel to those whom they would most wish to favor. Thus, on the borders of Persia, some of the tribes of Tartars massacre all the true believers who fall into their hands, but preserve heretics and infidels, because their religion forbids them to make slaves of true believers, and allows them to use or sell all others at their pleasure.†

In looking to the history of the world, we find that interest, and *interest* alone, has been enabled successfully to war against the fiercer passion of

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whole race, for the people of each hamlet or village, by turns, applied to me to destroy the other.....It appears to me that the New Zealanders must live in perpetual apprehension of being destroyed by each other.

* Among the Iroquois, says Dr. Robertson, the phrase by which they express their resolution of making war against an enemy is, "let us go and eat that nation." If they solicit the aid of a neighboring tribe, they invite it to eat broth made of the flesh of their enemies. Among the Abnakis, according to the "Lettres Edif. et Curieuse," the chief, after dividing his warriors into parties, says to each, to you is given such a hamlet to eat, to you such a village, &c. Captain Cook, in his third voyage, says of the New Zealanders, "perhaps the desire of making a good meal (on prisoners) is no small inducement" to go to war.

† Tacitus tells us that civil wars were always the most cruel, because the prisoners are not made slaves.

revenge. The only instance of mildness in war among the savages of North America, results from the operation of interest. Sometimes, when the tribe has suffered great loss of numbers, and stands very much in need of recruits, the prisoner is saved, and adopted (says Robertson) as a member of the nation. Pastoral nations require but few slaves, and consequently they save but few prisoners for this purpose. Agricultural require more, and this state is the most advantageous to slavery. Prisoners of war are generally spared by such nations, in consideration of the use which may be made of their labor.

It is curious in this respect, to contemplate the varied success with which, under various circumstances, the principle of self-interest combats that of vengeance. The barbarians who overran the Roman Empire, existed principally in the pastoral state; they brought along with them their wives and children, and consequently they required extensive regions for their support, and but few slaves. We find, accordingly, they waged a most cruel, exterminating war, not even sparing women and children. "Hence," says Dr. Robertson, in his preliminary volume to the History of Charles V., "If a man were called to fix upon a period in the history of the world, during which the condition of the human race was most calamitous and afflicted, he would, without hesitation, name that which elapsed from the death of Theodosius the Great, (A. D. 395.) to the reign of Alboinus in Lombardy," (A. D. 571.) At the last mentioned epoch, the barbarian inundations spent themselves, and consequently repose was given to the world.

Slavery was very common at the siege of Troy; but in consequence of the very rude state of agriculture prevalent in those days, and the great reliance placed on the spontaneous productions of the earth, the same number of slaves was not required as in subsequent ages, when agriculture had made greater advances. Hence we find the laws of war of a very cruel character—the principle of revenge triumphing over every other. These are the evils, we are informed by Homer, that follow the capture of a town: "The men are killed, the city is burned to the ground, the women and children of all ranks are carried off for slaves." (Iliad, L. 9.) Again: "Wretch that I am," says the venerable Priam, "what evil does the great Jupiter bring on me in my old age! My sons slain, my daughters dragged into slavery, violence pervading even the chambers of my palace, and the very infants dashed against the ground in horrid sport of war. I myself, slain in the vain office of defence, shall be the prey of my own dogs, perhaps, in the very palace gates!" (Iliad, L. 22.)

In after times, during the glorious days of the Republics of both Greece and Rome, the wants of man had undergone an enlargement; agriculture had been pushed to a high state of improvement, population became more dense, and consequently a more abundant production, and more regular and constant application of labor, became necessary. At this period, slaves were in great demand, and, therefore, the prisoners of war were generally spared in order that they might be made slaves. And this mildness did not arise so much from their civilization, as for the great demand for slaves. All the Roman generals, even the mild Julius, were sufficiently cruel to put to death when they did not choose to make slaves of the captives. Hence, as cruel as were the Greeks and Romans in war, they were much milder than the surrounding barbarous nations. In like manner, the wars in Africa have been made, perhaps, more mild by the *slave trade*, than they would otherwise have been. Instances are frequent, where the prisoner has been immmediately put to death because a purchaser could not be found. The report of the Lords, in 1789, speaks of a female captive in Africa, for whom an anker of brandy had been offered;

but before the messenger arrived, her head was cut off. Sir George Young saved the life of a beautiful boy, about five years old, at Sierra Leone: the child was about to be thrown into the river by the person who had him to sell, because he was too young to be an object of trade; but Sir George offered a quarter cask of Madeira for him, which was accepted.* A multitude of such instances might easily be cited from commanders of vessels and travelers, who have ever visited Africa. And thus do we find, by a review of the history of the world, that slavery alone, which addresses itself to the principle of self-interest, is capable of overcoming that inordinate desire of vengeance which glows in the breast of the savage; and, therefore, we find the remark made by Voltaire, in his Philosophical Dictionary, that "slavery is as ancient as war, and war as human nature," is not strictly correct; for many wars have been too cruel to admit of slavery.

Let us now close this head by an inquiry into the justice of slavery, flowing from the laws of war. And here we may observe in the first place, that the whole of the ancient world, and all nations of modern times verging on a state of barbarism—never for a moment doubted this right. All history proves that they have looked upon slavery as a mild punishment, in comparison with what they had a right to inflict.—And so far from being conscience-stricken, when they inflicted the punishment of death or slavery, they seemed to glory in the severity of the punishment, and to be remorseful only when, from some cause, they had not inflicted the worst. "Why so tender hearted?" says Agamemnon to Menelaus, seeing him hesitate, while a Trojan of high rank, who had the misfortune to be disabled by being thrown from his chariot, was begging for life—"Are you and your house so beholden to the Trajans? Let not one of them escape destruction from our hands—no, not the child within his mother's womb. Let all perish unmourned." And the poet even gives his sanction to this inhumanity of Agamemnon, who was never characterized as inhuman: "It was justly spoken, (says Homer,) and he turned his brother's mind. And the suppliant was murdered by the hand of the king of men. "When the unfortunate monarch of Troy came to beg the body of his heroic son, (Hector,) we find the conduct of Achilles marked by a superior spirit of generosity. Yet, in the very act of granting the pious request, he doubts if he is quite excusable to the soul of his departed friend, for remitting the extremity of vengeance which he had meditated, and restoring the corpse to secure the rites of burial."† To ask them, whether men with notions similar to these, had a right to kill or enslave the prisoners, would almost be like gravely inquiring into the right of tigers and lions to kill each other and devour the weaker beasts of the forest. If we look to the Republics of Greece and Rome, in the days of their glory and civilization, we shall find no one doubting the right to make slaves of those taken in war. "No legislator of antiquity," says Voltaire, "ever attempted to abrogate slavery: on the contrary, the people the most enthusiastic for liberty—the Athenians, the Lacedemonians, the Romans, and the Carthagenians—were those who enacted the most severe laws against their serfs. Society was so accustomed to this degradation of the species, that Epictetus, who was assuredly worth more than his master, never expresses any surprise at his being a slave."‡ Julius Cæsar has been reckoned one of the mildest, and most clement military chieftains of antiquity, and yet there is very little doubt, that the principal object in the invasion of Britain, was to procure slaves for the Roman slave markets. When he left Britain,

* See Edwards' West Indies, vol. 2, book 4, chap. 4.
† See Mitford's Greece, vol. 1, chap. 2, sec. 4.
‡ See Philosophical Dictionary, title 'Slaves.'

it became necessary to collect together a large fleet for the purpose of transporting his captives across the channel. He sometimes ordered the captive chiefs to be executed, and he butchered the whole of Cato's Senate when he became master of Utica. Paulus Emilius, acting under the special orders of the Roman Senate, laid all Epirus waste, and brought 150,000 captives in chains, to Italy, all of whom were sold in the Roman slave markets. Augustus Cæsar was considered one of the mildest, most pacific, and most politic of the Roman Emperors; yet, when he rooted out the nation of the Salassii, who dwelt upon the Alps, he sold 36,000 persons into slavery. Cato was a large owner of slaves, most of whom he had purchased in the slave markets at the sale of prisoners of war.* Aristotle, the greatest philosopher of antiquity, and a man of as capacious mind as the world ever produced, was a warm advocate of slavery—maintaining that it was reasonable, necessary, and natural; and accordingly, in his model of a republic, there were to be comparatively few freemen served by many slaves.†

If we turn from profane history to Holy Writ—that sacred fountain whence are derived those pure precepts and holy laws and regulations by which the Christian world has ever been governed, we shall find that the children of Israel, under the guidance of Jehovah, massacred or enslaved their prisoners of war. So far from considering slavery a curse, they considered it a punishment much too mild, and regretted, from this cause alone, its infliction.

The children of Israel, when they marched upon the tribes of Canaan, were in a situation very similar to the northern invaders who overran the Roman empire. They had their wives and children along with them, and wished to make Canaan their abode. Extermination, therefore, became necessary; and accordingly, we find that the Gibeonites alone, who practiced upon the princes of Israel by a fraud, escaped the dreadful scene of carnage. They were enslaved, and so far from regretting their lot, they seem to have delighted in it; and the children of Israel, instead of mourning over the destiny of the enslaved Gibeonites, murmured that they were not massacred—"and all the congregation murmured against the princes." And the answer of the princes was, "we will even let them live, lest wrath be upon us, because of the oath which we swear unto them."

"But let them be hewers of wood and drawers of water unto all the congregation, as the princes had promised them."‡

But it is needless to multiply instances farther to illustrate the ideas of the ancient world in regard to their rights to kill or enslave at pleasure the unfortunate captive. Nor will we now cite the example of Africa, the great storehouse of slavery for the modern world, which so completely sustains our position in regard to the opinions of men on this subject, farther than to make an extract from a speech delivered in the British House of Commons, by Mr. Henniker, in 1789, in which the speaker asserts that a letter had been received by George III., from one of the most powerful of African potentates, the Emperor of Dahomey, which letter admirably exemplifies an African's notions about the right to kill or enslave prisoners of war. "He (Emperor of Dahomey) stated," said Mr. H., "that as he understood King George was the greatest of white kings, so he thought himself the greatest of black ones. He asserted that he could lead 500,000 men armed into the field; that being the pursuit to which all his subjects were bred, and the women only staying at home to plant and manure the

* See Plutarch's Lives, "Cato the Elder."
† Aristotle's Politics, book 1, chap. 4.
‡ See 9th chapter of Joshua.

earth. He had himself fought two hundred and nine battles, with great reputation and success, and had conquered the great king of Ardah. The king's head was to this day preserved with the flesh and hair; the heads of his generals were distinguished by being placed on each side of the doors of their Fetiches; with the heads of the inferior officers they paved the space before the doors; and the heads of the common soldiers formed a sort of fringe or outwork round the walls of the palace.—Since this war, he had experienced the greatest good fortune, and he hoped in good time to be able to complete the out walls of all his great houses, to the number of seven, in the same manner."*

Mr. Norris, who visited this empire in 1772, actually testifies to the truth of this letter. He found the palace of the Emperor an immense assemblage of cane and mud tents, enclosed by a high wall. The sculls and jaw bones of enemies slain in battle, formed the favorite ornaments of the palaces and temples. The king's apartments were paved, and the walls and roof stuck over, with these horrid trophies. And if a farther supply appeared at any time desirable, he announced to his general, that "his house wanted thatch," when a war for that purpose was immediately undertaken.† Who can for a moment be so absurd as to imagine that such a prince as this could doubt of his right to make slaves in war, when he gloried in being able to thatch his houses with the heads of his enemies? Who could doubt that any thing else than a strong sense of interest, would ever put an end to such barbarity and ferocity? Our limits will not allow us to be more minute, however interesting the subject.

ART. VII.—PLANK ROADS.‡

No. II.

While we see other states progressing in this practical way, we, in South Carolina, are in the midst of a rail-road mania. We seem to have passed by, unnoticed, the fact that, notwithstanding eighteen years have elapsed since the South Carolina Rail-road to Hamburg was put in operation, the country through which it passes remains a comparative wilderness, with its hundreds and thousands of acres of heavy timber untouched, except the small portion used by the rail-road for its construction and repairs. A plank road would have long since carried this timber to market, and converted the present wild lands into cultivated fields.

It is the received opinion all over the world, that the improved condition of the common roads and bridges of a country are evident signs of the progress of civilization. But our planting states seem to be an exception to the rule; for with all our wealth and refinement, our market roads, over which millions of dollars worth of agricultural products annually pass, have had but little more labor bestowed upon them than to clear away the forest timber, and erect the rudest temporary bridges. In the winter season, when our great staple, cotton, ought to be carried to market, they are frequently almost impassable, even for empty wagons.

In looking back into the history of the last thirty years in South Carolina, we find that, notwithstanding this unpardonable state of things, the public mind has occasionally been excited, and I may say convulsed, on this subject. The mania for internal improvements, which prevailed in 1820 in this state, can be characterised by no more appropriate term than convulsion, for in a state

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* See Hazlit's British Eloquence, vol. ii,

† See Family Library, No. 16, p. 199.

‡ By W. Gregg, of South Carolina.—(See April number.)

of feverish excitement, she expended millions of dollars in works for which the country was not prepared, and which proved to be a waste of money. The amount of capital expended in those useless canals, would have constructed McAdamized roads to every important section of our state, serving, at that period, to cheapen the transit of produce to market, and at this time as a basis for the plank road, so admirably adapted to our country, and which, in my opinion, is destined to supersede all other modes of transit.

Rail-roads are expensive in their first outlay, and extremely complicated, and expensive to keep up. They seldom improve the country through which they pass, and are beneficial to cities only, by reaching sections of country which have no natural outlets, and which are beyond the reach of a wagon trade, over good common roads. They are profitable to stockholders only when located on great thoroughfares for travel, and where they can be used to extend the commerce of a city. Out of the 9,000 miles of rail-road now in use in the United States, it is surprising to learn how few of them yield a profit commensurate to the capital which has been invested in their construction. It certainly ought to admonish us against injudicious selections of the mode of improving the highways of the state, and of the fatal consequences of exhausting the energy and capital of a country to construct works, which, however gigantic in their conception, will not prove sufficiently useful to pay for keeping them up. I allude to the present state of public sentiment from no unkind feelings towards the rail-roads now being projected and in progress in our state, but from a settled conviction that public opinion, in this particular, is entirely in error.

Rail-roads are necessarily costly works, and ought not to be attempted except by capitalists for *bona fide* investment. When there is not a sure prospect of profitable returns, capitalists will not lend their aid, and the work has to be commenced by exciting appeals to patriotism, and plausible arguments as to the advantages which will accrue to every individual through whose neighborhood it may pass. The work is often commenced after receiving promises for but half the capital necessary to complete it, depending on loans for the balance; and when completed, is found to have cost more than the estimates, thus starting under the disadvantage of a heavy debt. Then comes the great difficulty, which is the pith of the argument in favor of other modes of improving the highways of South Carolina,—I mean the large outlays necessary for the purchase of complicated machinery, the erection of workshops to keep it in repair, the necessity for high salaried officers—such as a president, treasurer, auditor, agent of transportation, civil engineer, and foreman of workshops; also skilful workers in iron and wood—painters, upholsterers, receivers and deliverers of freight—laborers to load and unload—a regiment of clerks and book-keepers, working engineers, conductors, firemen, &c. To all of these ramifications of expense, the extent of which is scarcely conceivable by the best informed in such matters, must be added the wear of iron and decay of timber, slow but sure, in their eventual destruction of property, and which cannot be neglected even for a day. Much diversity of opinion exists among rail-road managers as to the extent which rail-road companies should engage in the manufacture and repair of machinery; in my opinion, large sums of money have been wasted in this way, and the extent of such establishments ought to be decided by the facilities immediately at hand to have the work done by private contract. All interior roads would be under the actual necessity of doing such work for themselves, however costly it might prove to be. The workshops now being erected by the South Carolina Rail-road Company in this place, are on an extensive scale. Without pretending to enter into any argument as to the policy, I do not hesitate to express the opinion, that when this establishment is fully equipped with men and machinery, that, in the absence of the most consummate skill in managing, it will sink, in the wear and tear of machinery, waste of material, and injudicious application of mechanical labor, a larger sum per annum than would be necessary to pay a good dividend on the investment necessary to build a plank road one hundred and sixty miles long. The mere working of the South Carolina Rail-road costs, in round numbers, over $1,200 per day for every working day in the year. As I have before observed, rail-roads are exceedingly complicated works, costly in their construc-

tion and outfit, and in their management; and we think that the least reflection ought to convince us that they are only fitted for locations where they can obtain the patronage of an extensive mercantile or manufacturing population.

How striking the contrast between rail and plank roads, in every point of view. The permanent cost of a plank road ceases with the construction of the highway. With the same original expenditure, it accommodates a thousand or a million tons of transportation; while the rail-road requires large investments in machinery for any additional influx of trade, whether permanent or temporary. The plank road is capable of meeting all the wants of our country, and superior to the rail-road in every particular, but that of indulging our fancy in rapidly passing from one point to another; it is so simple and cheap in its construction and management, that there is scarcely a village, or an agricultural section of our country, that cannot afford to build and maintain one.

After the construction is completed, the commonest labor of our country can be used in keeping them in repair. The whole expense of conducting the affairs of a plank road from this city to the mountains, would be embraced in the salary of a treasurer or general supervisor, the gate-keepers, overseers, and laborers requisite to keep the road in order. The most striking feature of the plank road system, that distinguishes it from the rail-road, is, that the first avails itself of the independent, pre-existing animal power for the purposes of transportation, while the last substitutes mechanical agency for the same end.

Now, if the question were raised in manufacturing countries, like Great Britain and the Eastern states, (where the construction and management of machinery is the business of a large class of the population, and where horse power is used only to a limited extent,) as to the advantages of the two modes of transportation, the decision would undoubtedly be in favor of the machine—but in South Carolina, we are seeking the best modes of transportation for our great agricultural staple, and it is a question of some importance how far the public interest will be promoted by substituting machinery, when it would not lessen the amount of animal power required for the purposes of production. From the great amount of ploughing necessary to the growth of a cotton crop, there is no country in the world which employs so much of animal power, in proportion to the weight of the staple product, as in our *cotton* growing states. In the growth of cotton, ploughing is continually needed from January and February, when the land is broken up, to August, when the crop is laid by, and the fruit begins to open; on an average, a horse or mule is employed for every eight bales of cotton, or ton and a half of product. In grain and grass growing countries, a farmer puts in thirty acres of wheat, with one horse, which yields from fifteen to twenty bushels to the acre, or 36,000 lbs., about fifteen tons of product to the horse. The article of hay will greatly exceed this, and probably reach forty tons of product to the horse.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULT URE

1.—ESTIMATES OF COTTON CROPS—1850-'51.

We have two of these before us; the first made on the 8th of March, as follows:

Received at all the ports to date, as per price current		1,693,185
Received, and now at interior towns, viz.:		
Augusta and Hamburg, Feb. 1, 1851	65,558	
Columbus, Ga., Feb. 22, 1851	17,741	
Macon, Ga., March 4, 1851	17,780	
Montgomery, Ala., March 1, 1851	16,759	
Memphis, Tenn., Feb. 18, 1851	20,000	
Columbia, S. C., Feb. 1, 1851	5,000—	142,838
Total received and on hand		1,836,023

Brought forward		1,836,023
Estimated amount to come from sundry places:		
Yazoo River and tributaries	20,000	
Vicinity of Memphis and Hatchie River	15,000	
Tennessee River and Nashville	40,000	
Arkansas and White Rivers	4,000	
Red and Ouachita Rivers	15,000	
Scattering, from Mississippi River	15,000	
Texas	20,000	
Tombigbee, Warrior, and Alabama Rivers	40,000	
Interior of Georgia	50,000	
Interior of South Carolina	50,000	
Florida	40,000	309,000
Estimate of whole crop of 1850–51		2,145,023
But there is to be deducted from this amount, cotton to be bought at Memphis for manufacturing at the West—Pittsburgh, Wheeling, Wellsburg, and Cannelton	25,000	
Deduct 5 per cent. for short weight	106,000	
Deduct for trash, motes, and unmerchantable cotton	20,000	151,000
Leaving for the crop only		1,994,023

The second is made in the circular of Talcott and Bro., of New-York, on the 1st of April.

We submit for perusal the estimates of ALL the factors at New-Orleans, made 14th inst, of the receipts at that port. These confirm the estimate we advised Nov. 5th, per the "Asia;" but our estimates for Mobile and the Atlantic states, MAY each be exceeded 25,000 bales; in which case the result would be as follows:

New-Orleans	900,000
Mobile	425,000
Atlantic States	675,000
Florida	170,000
Texas	35,000
Total	2,205,000

Messrs. Talcott base their New-Orleans estimate upon the calculations of the following leading cotton merchants and factors of the city, who vary from 825 to 900,000, but in general fix upon 900,000.

Cleveland, Bros. & Co., Lowe & Pattison, Ward & Jonas, R. J. Ward, R. Yeatman & Co., Bonner & Smith, Anderson & Metcalfe, G. T. Steever, Buchannon, Carroll & Co., Buckner & Stanton, S. O. Nelson & Co., Washington, Jackson & Co., J. B. Planche & Co., Thornbill & McIlhenny, Frierson & Fowler, McLemore, Currin & Co., Nalle, Cox & Co, Payne & Harrison, Robbins, Arrington & Co., Jurey & Co., A. J. Wright & Co., Cammack & Squires, Bulkley & Holt, Cherry, Henderson & Co., Wyche & Hammet, McDowell, Mills & Co., P. A. Owen & Co., J. P. Donald & Co., Hewitt, Norton & Co., Jos Lallande, J. H. Moore, Gray & Campbell, Rugeley, Rochelle & Blair, R. H. Frazer & Co., Hill, McLean & Co. H. R. W. Hill, A. Miltenberger & Co., J. B. Byrne & Co, Watt & De Sauls, G. Burke & Co., Bradley, Wilson & Co., Richard Beck, Robson & Allen, H. Kendall, Carter & Co., Cummings, Stewart & Co, McGregor & Alloway, M. D. Cooper & Co., Bogart & Foley, John G. Cocks & Co., Fellows & Co., Swiney. Green & Co. Geo. M. Pinckard & Co. Pickett, Perkins & Co., M. Greenwood & Co., Oakley & Hawkins, Maunsel, White & Co., Wright, Williams & Co., J. M. Bell & Conway, M'Ree & Coffman, Moon, Titus & Co., R. Nugent & Co., Williams, Phillips & Co., T. Henderson & Peale, Fearn, Donegan & Co, A. Miltenberger, McMahon & Pearsall, John Williams, B. Elder, Bros, & Co., J. C. Ricks & Co., D, Mitchell & Co., George Connelly, H. Frellsen & Co.

2.—THE EARLY DAYS OF COTTON GROWING IN THE SOUTH-WEST.

Our informant, a reverend gentleman, who came to Mississippi in 1816, says: "At that time, both green and black seed were grown, the latter being much the more prolific and yielding the best fibre, the staple being fine and prettylong,

about three-fourths of an inch. Cotton was subject to no casualties." (The rot had not yet become general, and the worm appeared only partially, and at rare intervals.) All grew more than they could pick. He has seen the hands still picking in one part of the field in the spring, whilst other-hands in the same field were ploughing and planting. The stocks pulled up and piled for burning, even as late as April, looked like banks of snow. Many Indian women were employed every fall to pick, were paid $1 per 100 pounds of seed cotton, in cash or goods, and provisions and whiskey. They did not pick near so much as the negroes, but very clean." These were Choctaws. "A smooth iron crowbar was used for packing bags of cotton, the bag made of Kentucky bagging, was suspended under a hole in the floor of the lint room; the cotton, in wads, was handed down to a negro who was inside the bag, who tramped and rammed it down with the crowbar, whilst another kept the outside of the bag pretty well wetted, to prevent the cotton springing again." Some used a lever press worked by hand, such as is still used for many purposes. A venerable lady resident in this village, and who came to this part of the South-west in 1773, says, that not only these lever, but screw presses were in use for baling cotton, as early as 1794. The bales or bags, whether packed by press or hand, weighed about three to the 1,000 pounds, or 333 pounds each.

We come now to an era in cotton growing almost as important as that of the invention of the saw gin—that of the introduction of the *Mexican* or *Petit Gulf* seed, so called from having first attracted public attention, and from seed having been disseminated from Petit Gulf or Rodney. It is extremely difficult to arrive at a precise conclusion as to the "when and by whom" introduced.

One account related to us says, that Mexican seed was introduced about the year 1824. A Mr. Lewellyn Price, then a planter in the Gulf Hills, in Claiborne County, near where Oakland College stands, has the credit of first growing it to any extent. We are told that he did not know where he got the first seed, unless it was from an old gentleman, a musician and dancing master, who was long well known all over the country, privileged in every house, "even to kissing all the girls on his arrival and departure." He was a Frenchman or Italian, named Brisnoe. He was in the habit of carrying about with him, and distributing, from one part of the country to another, seeds and cuttings of various kinds; and from him, Mr. Price thinks, he first got three or four seeds of this variety of cotton. Brisnoe was supposed to have gotten them from a Walter Burlin—this, however, as we shall show, is disputed. Price grew the few seeds he got, carefully saving it until he had enough to plant five acres, which he did on a small *burn*, or clearing in the woods off by itself. The plant was similar to the Gulf seed cotton, of the present day, but boles larger, staple coarser, and the cotton fell out of the boles greatly. My informant, a very intelligent and observant old gentleman, who then resided near to Price, says he thinks that if the seed had been received at that time, in quantity sufficient to plant a crop, it would not have been grown; as it grew rank, with few boles, and the cotton fell out, so that it was impossible to pick anything of a crop. But a few seeds having only been received at first, it had time to be acclimated and undergo considerable change for the better, in these respects, before it went into anything like general cultivation. T. A.

3.—EAST INDIA COTTON.

The restless eagerness with which the people and government of Great Britain look to the establishment of rivals to the cotton producing states of this Union, is not understood by those who are not led to inspect the occasional publications in that country.

In a late article of Blackwood, after insisting on the power of one extremity of their empire to supply fully the materials for the most economical industry of the other, the following paragraph is quoted from the *Times*, January, 1851:

"At present, the native consumption of cotton in India is estimated at from 1000,000,000 to 3000,000,000 lbs. In this state of things, the rough production that suits the home market will, of course, only be carried on, while, if sufficient means of conveyance existed to render the cotton that is now grown in the interior at 1½d per pound, remunerative, for export, increased care in its preparation would be manifested, as was the case in the United States, just in proportion to the increased reward that would result. In developing these views, Mr. Chap-

man undertakes to demonstrate, by well arranged facts and tables, that the export of cotton from India to England has risen exactly as the difficulties or expense of its transmission have been diminished, and also that costs and impediments still remain which are sufficient to account for the smallness of the quantity we continue to receive."

In this connexion, it will be remembered that British capital has been applied to rail-roads from Bombay into the interior, and that these are in course of construction.

From Holt's Reports, for January, 1851, it appears that the importation of East India cotton into England,

In 1849, was	106,967
In 1850	191,401
Increase last year	84,434 bales.

4.—COTTON FROM MISSISSIPPI, IN CHARLESTON.

We have had sent us the samples of five bales of Mississippi cotton sold in this market yesterday at 12 cents per pound. This is the first cotton from that state that has been sent to this market for sale, and is a portion of the crop of William D. Hollowel, Esq., of Huntsville, Ala., who plants in Mississippi, and through the enterprise of that gentleman, was brought up the Mississippi River to Memphis, thence to the Muscle Shoals on the Tennessee River, around the Shoals by the Tuscumbia Rail-road, and again by the Tennessee River to Chattanooga. The quality of the cotton is beautiful, and it was purchased by a Liverpool buyer at what may be considered an extra price for the day. Mr. Hollowel, we understand, sent also the first bales of cotton that came to this market from North Alabama, and has, therefore, twice earned the reputation of a pioneer in our new and rapidly increasing trade with the South-west.—*Mercury.*

5.—TEA PLANTING IN THE UNITED STATES.

Messrs. Editors.—The planting of foreign tea nuts, in this country, I find, both from reason and experience, cannot, with safety, be assimilated to the planting of the same nut in China. To preserve the nut from perishing in transportation, it is necessary that it should be thoroughly dried, and the kernel is of consequence considerably contracted and hard. In China it is planted so soon as gathered from the shrub, about November, in its natural fresh and green state, and therefore is in a condition for early vegetation, and the loss from decay in the ground is materially diminished. It receives the heat and moisture simultaneously, but a dry nut planted in our cold winter soil requires a combination of the same elements of heat and moisture to give effect to vegetation, and therefore has new difficulties with which to contend. If planted in the autumn or winter it remains a long time in the cold earth under the influence of one element only, that of moisture, and consequently is liable to perish for want of heat. I have experienced this in every instance when I have planted at the usual time of planting in China. The last season I did not begin to plant until the first week in June to any extent. The thermometer then indicated 66 to 74 degrees of heat, and by the middle of the month was as high as 70 to 84 degrees. Heat continued to increase, and in July ranged from 79 to 84 degrees—in August, up to 76 to 90 degrees.

In September, a small number of nuts, when I least expected them, germinated, and the plants are now in a thriving, healthy condition. The remainder of the nuts, and those planted at a subsequent period, still remain in the ground, and cannot be expected to germinate until warmed into vitality by increasing heat.

It is obvious that where we have most failed, is not because the nuts were unsound, though it will necessarily occasion a failure, but because the nuts were destroyed by the cold earth in the absence of a sufficiently high and continued temperature.

To approximate as nearly as possible to the most suitable time for planting, I have continued to plant every month a few nuts, and shall continue to plant until June, which will give me an experiment of twelve months. In that way I hope to show, by actual experiment, the season of the year, under ordinary circumstances of variation of seasons, when the largest expectations of successful planting

may be indulged. At present I am in favor of late planting, but the final result of successive plantings may lead to a different conclusion. It is a nice and important point, and requires that the facts should be amply testified by experiments. As facts devolve the evidence sought, communication will be made for the information of the public.

I have had other nuts lie in the ground twelve months, and then break into fine and vigorous plants. I have a greater curiosity to learn how long a sound tea nut may lie in the ground before it germinates or perishes, than I have to know how soon the plant may be realized. JUNIUS SMITH, LL. D.

Golden Grove Tea Plantation, S. Carolina.

To the Editors of The Southern Patriot:

GENTLEMEN,—Some of your subscribers may feel an interest in the progress of tea cultivation. I have removed, from the village of Greenville to this place, the whole of the tea plants set out two years ago in my one acre experimental tea garden in the village, and last week transferred them to my plantation. They now constitute a part of the Golden Grove Tea Plantation, in conjunction with those plants received from China in June last, and a few seedling plants from nuts planted 15th June last, which germinated in September, and are now small, but healthy plants. All the plants from the village stood the snows of January, and the frosts and storms of winter, without the slightest covering or protection, in perfect security, without a single loss, affording conclusive evidence of their natural hardiness and strength.

I cannot but express my gratification at seeing every one of the plants lifted, especially as it was the first opportunity I have had of seeing the roots of the plant now of Carolina growth. The main roots are fine and large, the collaterals of a corresponding strength and beauty, shooting out fibrous radicals in great abundance, in every direction. They have all grown remarkably well during the last summer, and I trust the whole will constitute the nucleus of extensive tea plantations in the United States. Your obedient servant,

JUNIUS SMITH.

6.—HORSES AND MULES.

"*Soil of the South.*"—As a Southern man, I am proud to see the growing indications of increasing interest in the agricultural department, and hail with delight the first issue of '*The Soil of the South,*' as a co-worker in this good cause. Let every planter bid it welcome, and come up to its aid with long lists of subscribers, and contributions, (homely though they be,) for its columns, and we shall soon see its potency for good, when the planters in all the region round about shall send up their plans, their thoughts, their modes of culture, their success and their failures, their methods of raising stock, and also the long list of nameless things pertaining to plantation interests. I am pleased to see in your first issue such a variety of interesting matter; but as no one seems to have thought of raising horses and mules, I will, by way of beginning, bring this subject to yours and your readers' notice, by offering a few thoughts, especially in reference to the latter. A stranger to our country would think, from the large droves which are seen all over our state throughout the fall and winter, that there must surely be some law or prohibition against the raising of mule colts in our southern climate, and would, doubtless, be surprised when he learned that there was neither; but that Kentucky nor Tennessee could produce finer than Georgia or Alabama, *if we would but try.*

My purpose is to see if we cannot be induced *to try.* Now that we have plenty of open land, affording opportunity for sowing large quantities of small grain, and having much for pasturage, most men would be astonished to know at how little expense one, two or half a dozen mule colts might be raised. The plan is to have some good strong square built mares; use them for plowing in making the crop; this service would end generally in July—and when they have rested and recruited some six weeks, they will be in fine order. About the middle of September commence the season, and continue, if need be, till the first of November. Their colts will then be dropped from the middle of August to the middle of September, and by a little pains-taking in the preparation of lots for green winter and spring pasturage, the colts will be quite large enough to wean in good time for the spring plowing. By that time, on most plantations raising the

usual quantity of oats, the colts may be turned upon these fields, and with very little feeding and plenty of salt, they will not only grow, but by the time the oats are beginning to turn, they will be fat and sleek; and by this process of pasturage, with a little care and feeding in that part of the winter when you have no pea fields for them to run on, you will at the end of three short years have a well grown young mule, ready to go into your plow, and your hundred dollars *in your pocket*. Mark that! There lies the difference. And if southern men would mark a few more things *which would bear marking*, they would find that the sun has never shone upon any land, which has so many of the resources of independence as ours. But, Messrs. Editors, as I sat out rather to congratulate and encourage you in your new enterprise, than to write an article, I will desist for the present, hoping that your subcriptions may be increased a hundred fold, and that your usefulness may be commensurate with your largest deserves.

(*Blue Lick Alabama.*)

7.—MULES.

There is probably no branch of our economy that we act more unwisely in, than that pertaining to stock, and especially so with regard to mules. The price they rated at the past winter, should surely open our eyes to the improvident course we are pursuing. Good mules rated at $100 to $125, and not dull of sale at that! Now, I take upon me to say, that even if cotton is at 12 cents per pound, it is easier to raise a good mule than to make $125, or even $100 by raising cotton. In the mode of farming, to accomplish the different ends, there is also a vast difference. He who raises grain and grass will save, and, if judicious, improve his land, and from pasture, hay, stubble and like means, may almost without missing what he feeds, supply himself with mules and horses, and as before said, if judicious, improve his lands; but he who raises a full crop of cotton cannot possibly keep his lands from wearing out. They must of necessity lose their fertility. If any one ever harbored the absurdity of supposing that he could forever take from a tract of land, however good, year after year, a good crop and return nothing to it, a few years of Alabama and Mississippi corn and cotton planting would convince him, if he observed only a little with one eye, that the idea was a fallacy. But still, however apparent the thing is, we go on from year to year cropping our bare fields, exposing them to the scorching sun and the washing shower, ever taking from them and returning nothing, and from season to season buying instead of raising mules.

(*Alabama Planter.*)

8—FRUIT CULTURE IN THE SOUTH.

In the Farmer and Planter we find a report of the committee on fruits recently read before the Pendleton (S. C.) Farmers' Association. In a preliminary way, the committee remarks that the present practice of raising a crop amongst fruit trees, and running the ploughs to the very trunk of the trees, we consider highly injurious. First, the roots are cut more or less, and thus they are injured; and then, the crop exhausts the land, and takes that nourishment from the trees, which they so much need, in almost every case; for wherever we meet with an orchard, we find that a field which was worn out, has been selected for that purpose. It is impossible for poor land to produce trees and cotton, corn, or some other crop. If your orchard is to be planted, give your trees nearly double the distance you would otherwise; manure them well—which should be done under any circumstances if the land is poor—and be careful not to plant so near the trees as to affect the roots with the plough. We would recommend the following mode of culture for fruit trees: In planting them, let the holes be circular, four feet diameter, and two feet deep, and when the trees are placed therein, fill around them with good earth. After high winds, notice whether the ground has been loosened from around the trees, and trample it back; if this is not attended to, they are apt to die, as the air gets to the roots. All weeds and grass should be prevented from growing around them, and in manuring, let it be a top dressing. After the trees have grown sufficiently large to bear, they will shade the ground, and of themselves check any growth around them. We consider hogs more useful in an orchard, in fruit season, than the plough or hoe, they consume all that drops, and thereby destroy a vast number of insects, which are generated

in decayed fruit. There is a great error existing in crowding orchards—we will notice the distance necessary for the different trees as we speak of them

The following is given as the mode of propagating the different kinds of fruit trees:

1st. THE CHERRY.—This fruit receives no attention in this section of country, for reason, we know not how good the choice varieties are. The Morello, which is grown here, is indeed unworthy of attention; but the finer sorts, which are cultivated in the northern states, are far superior fruit, and should be introduced amongst us. Indeed, there are some of the Heart cherries growing on a farm in this neighborhood. These kinds, if raised from the seed, will grow large and make shade trees, but if budded on the Morello, will make a dwarfish tree. For rearing trees, we would recommend planting the seed of the Morello and budding on them. If planted in an orchard, let the trees be twenty feet apart. This fruit is liable to the depredations of the Curculio, and the tree to the knots, both of which must be treated as recommended in noticing the plum.

PLUM.—This fruit is well known among us, that is, the common kind. While we would recommend the cultivating of these for the use of hogs, we would especially the fine sorts for the table, of which there are now growing in this neighborhood about twenty. These fine kinds will do well if grafted on the common, and when sufficiently large, set them out in the orchard twenty feet apart. This fruit has a destructive enemy in the Curculio, which punctures the fruit a few weeks after the blossoms drop, and deposites its eggs, seldom more than one in each plum; in course of time the egg becomes a white grub, which eats its way to the stone, and as soon as it reaches it, the fruit falls. The grub then soon finds its way into the ground, and there remains until spring, when it again comes forth in the form of the Curculio, to deal destruction. Having so formidable an enemy to contend with in the cultivation of this most delicious fruit, we must bring to your notice, some mode or modes of remedy. We would recommend covering the ground, around the tree as far as the limbs extend, with clay, that it may form a hard surface, and thus prevent the grub from penetrating into the ground. If this is not successful, sprinkle fine salt over the ground as far as the limbs shall extend. Should it be dissolved before fruit has fallen, apply more, it is destructive to the grub. This remedy is highly recommended by those who have tried it. The Curculio, when they make their appearance, can be caught by spreading sheets under the trees, and giving the trunks of the trees some taps, which will cause them to fall, they can then be gathered up and burned. Hang bottles about the trees with sweetened water, and they will go into them and be so caught. The plum is also subject to disease termed the knots or black gum; if allowed to spread, it will destroy the tree. We therefore recommend what is considered the most effectual remedy: take off the limb affected, and burn it, which will destroy any insect that may be the cause of it. If this treatment does not seem to arrest it, root up the tree and burn.

THE PEACH.—This much esteemed fruit, though cultivated in large quantities amongst us, yet, the qualities are mostly inferior. There are many choice kinds in this neighborhood, and they should be generally propagated. In rearing this fruit, plant the nuts of healthy trees in the fall, and in the following summer, about the month of August or September, if the plants be large enough, bud on the kind desired, and in the succeeding spring the buds will put out and form a good head, and can be set out in the orchard in the fall—let them be twenty feet apart.

The peach tree is liable to a disease called the "yellows," which a due attention to pruning, thus checking too luxuriant a growth, seems, in a measure, to prevent, and it, at the same time, forms a prettier tree, and enables it better to support its fruit. We say pruning, we mean shortening the limbs, and making it form a bushy head. The yellows can be known by the tree gradually perishing, and as it is incurable, root up the victim and burn it, and let no tree be planted in the same spot for some years; it is considered contagious. The peach is also liable to be injured by the Borer, a worm which cuts around the tree, under the bark, just below the surface of the ground; by removing the earth from around the trunk and cutting away the bark that has become loose by the depredations of the Borer, it can be found. But the most effectual remedy is the preventive: in the month of April, put about a peck of ashes around the tree, and let it re-

main so until fall—it will prevent the moth from depositing its eggs; and after the season is past, spread it over the ground—no better manure—this ought to be repeated annually.

THE PEAR.—This luscious fruit, we notice with few exceptions, is not cultivated in this vicinity. We cannot refrain from recommending it to the particular attention of all lovers of fruit. A taste of the summer Bergamot, Bartlett, Seckel, or Doyenne, we are sure would be the strongest recommendation to their culture, but there are many others as fine as these. We doubt not, many persons who have never eaten any other kind of this fruit, than the common of this country, will be surprised to hear, that there is now in cultivation, in this neighborhood, fifty different sorts of the choicest. The culture of this fruit consists in planting the seeds, and when the young plants have attained a sufficient growth, bud on them the varieties which you may desire, and as they grow to the height of about seven feet, set them out in the orchard thirty feet apart. If pear seed cannot be obtained, the apple can be used, in which case, grafting must be adopted instead of budding, and it ought to be done as near the surface of the ground as possible, as by so doing, in setting out the young tree, the ugly wound can be hid. By being so planted, the pear will put out roots for itself, which we consider an advantage. Budding the pear on the apple will not do, as the former will outgrow the latter. This fruit is liable to two diseases, termed the worm blight, and the frozen sap or fire blight; the former is where a worm cuts around a limb, and thereby stops the flowing of the sap, and causes it to wither and die; when this is the case, cut off the part so affected a few inches below and burn it. The latter is caused by the tree taking a fresh growth late in the summer, and is overtaken in this state by frost, which does the damage, though the sap will flow up, as usual, in the spring, and cause the shoots to put forth, yet in its reverting to pass through the woody part, it meets with this frozen sap in the form of a gummy substance, which obstructs it, and the result is, the part so affected dies. The saw must be used under this circumstance as in the former disease. After taking off the limb, the wood will have a dark appearance if it is the fire-blight, and you must then continue cutting off until it looks healthy; otherwise, the entire tree will become affected by it and die. There is a small insect which, at times, eats the leaves; it does not seem to injure the trees; they can be destroyed by sprinkling water with tobacco juice on them.

THE APPLE.—This is a universal favorite, and well deserves to be so, for it is the most hardy of all the fruit trees, bears more regularly, and can be enjoyed both summer and winter. To cultivate the apple, plant the seed in the fall, in a rich bed, and when the young plants are about a quarter of an inch in diameter, set them out in the nursery in rows, and as they get to be about a half an inch in diameter, graft or bud. In planting the trees in an orchard, let them be distanced thirty feet apart. The apple is liable to the depredations of several insects. One girdles the trunk of the tree as the grub does the peach, and the same treatment must be resorted to as with the peach. The other enemies to this fruit do their injury by feeding on the leaves; they must be destroyed. As the moth, which produces these worms, flies at night, they might be destroyed by making fires about the orchard at that season. There is very little pruning necessary, only thin out such limbs as cross each other. There are upwards of two hundred different apples, of which there are forty of the choicest in cultivation in this section of country. We are of opinion that this fruit cannot be brought to as great perfection here, as further north of us, yet they will do well enough to encourage its culture.

9.—IMPORTANCE OF GROWING FRUIT IN THE SOUTH.

Few persons, perhaps, are aware of the profit that may be made from the cultivation of fruit at the South, especially those of apples and pears, which will bear transportation some distance to market without injury to them. An acre of ground will contain sixty-four apple trees, with ample room between, and each tree will yield at least five bushels of apples, when six or seven years old, and more as they grow older; sixty-four trees will then yield 320 bushels of apples per year, which will always bring at least one dollar per bushel, in Middle and Lower Georgia, and more than half the time $1,50 per bushel. The ground, in the mean time, if well manured and cultivated, will pay all the cost of taking the fruit to

market. Thus we see that $300, at a very moderate estimate, can be made annually from an acre of ground, in the form of clear profit, and a ready market always found. The cultivation of pears will yield a a still better income; the trees are somewhat slower in coming into bearing than apples, say ten years, if grafted on the pear stock, but if grafted upon the quince, much sooner than apples, say three to four years. If grafted upon pear stocks, when grown, the yield is enormous; a tree will frequently bear from 20 to 60 bushels per year. These, if of the best and most desirable kinds, will bring in market from three to five dollars per bushel. Pears worked or grafted upon quince stocks, are beautiful dwarf trees, from five to eight feet high, and consequently cannot produce a large amount of fruit on each tree, but being dwarfs in size, a great number can be planted upon an acre of ground; say 400 trees to an acre. Now, should each tree produce but half a bushel each year, we will have 200 bushels, which, at two dollars and a half per bushel, will amount to five hundred dollars,—a neat sum from one acre of ground. The foregoing calculations are very moderate, and in most cases, will be found below the usual quantity and amount.

Little or no attention has heretofore been paid by Southern planters, to the selection of good fruit or its cultivation, until within a year or two past. I am glad to perceive that they are beginning to pay some attention to the subject, and that it costs no more to raise good fruit than poor, barring a few cents a-piece for the purchase of trees.

The whole of Georgia, commencing at Greene County, west and north, to the state line, will produce apples, pears, and several other fruits of a choice character. Many will doubtless say that the market would soon be stocked, if they were to embark in the enterprise. Not so. It has been found at the north that the consumption at least keeps pace with the increased production; so it would be here. If ten times the quantity were grown that now is, it would be consumed as readily as the present amount; and besides, we could drive northern fruit from our market at their own prices. I have no data at hand to show the amount paid to the north each year for fruit, but have no doubt it is very large, all of which might, with but trifling effort and cost, be kept at home. This is the way to perpetuate the Union; become independent of the North, and she will soon find it to her interest to abstain from intermeddling with our institutions, and rights, and will find in the end that a reciprocity of trade is as necessary for her as for us.

Every planter and farmer should have an orchard of apple and pear trees, to say nothing of other fruits. His negroes and stock, if nothing else, will reap a benefit that will more than pay the cost each year, to say nothing of the pleasure of enjoying a free use of it in our families. Both the before-mentioned fruits succeeded well here, as I have proved by experiment and practice, if the proper varieties of them are selected for cultivation. A large proportion of the trees offered by northern nurserymen, with grand and long-sounding names, are worthless both there and here; but there are some forty or fifty kinds of apples, and many pears, that are valuable and worth cultivating, and not more. There are also a very few varieties of southern growth, also, which will pay well for the trouble of cultivation: not more than four or five kinds of apples; and of pears, I do not know of any worth the room the trees will occupy. Every owner and occupant of an acre of ground should have at least a dozen of choice dwarf pear trees in his garden, as they occupy so little room, and pay so well for that little room; and could they but taste a Dutchess D'Angouleme or Bartlett pear, when grown in perfection, I doubt not they would before another year elapsed, be found there. Not one person in a hundred, in Georgia, ever tasted a good, melting, juicy pear, nor can they imagine how luscious a fruit it is, until they do.

10.—THE COW PEA.

Many words and more dollars have been fruitlessly expended, in the effort to introduce the varieties of clover into use at the South. The planters seem now to be very generally satisfied that none of the varieties in common use at the North can be successfully introduced into our fields. But while this is a fact, we do not think that we have any reason to despair of our ability to command a substitute, which, at least, so far as its fertilizing properties are concerned, will prove equally as valuable, if not more so than the clover. This substitute has the me-

rit of universal and easy applicability to our soils, and will be found to possess in an eminent degree, all the virtues which we have in vain sought after in the clover: I mean the Cow PEA! The first thing of importance to us to ascertain is, whether the common cow pea contains the proper fertilizing properties for our ordinary crops. Upon analysis, it has been found that 100 parts of the ash of the Pea contains 34¾ parts of phosphoric acid; 40¼ parts of potash; 6¼ parts of lime; 5½ parts of sulphuric acid; 6½ parts of magnesia. The vine of the pea affords 38 parts of lime; 17¼ parts of potash; 14¾ parts of carbonic acid; 4½ parts of phosphoric acid; silica 5¼; sulphuric acid 5½; magnesia 6¾, &c., these being the prominent elements. Upon an analysis of the cotton plant, we find that the lint is composed as follows: carbonate of potash 44¼ parts; phosphate of lime 25¼ parts; carbonate of lime 9 parts; carbonate of magnesia 6¾ parts; silica 4 parts. The seed gives, phosphate of lime 61¼ parts; phosphate of potassa 31¾ parts; sulphate of potassa 2½ parts; silica 1½. From which it appears that the phosphoric and the carbonic are the principal gases, and potash and lime the principal bases, which enter into the composition of the cotton plant, and they must, therefore, constitute the prominent elements in all fertilizers designed for the cotton crop. The cow pea, we have seen, abounds most in phosporic and carbonic acids, and lime and potash as alkalis, just exactly the elements which we have seen, were required by the cotton plant. The first question, then, is the cow pea a good fertilizer? is settled affirmatively by positive analysis.

The next point of inquiry is, as to the mode in which it should be used, and here there is likely to be some difference of opinion. It is held by some, that the crop should be turned under; by others that it should be allowed to rot upon the ground. I believe in the latter plan. And, first, because it saves the labor of plowing in, which, to be done properly, should be done at the time when the cotton planter is most busily engaged. If the pea is plowed in at all, it should be done when they are just fully matured, and before they begin to dry.

But the second, and to my mind, the principal objection to plowing under the pea vine is, that the surface of the earth is thus too much exposed to the injurious action of the sun, which, in our hot climate, is very destructive to the fertilizing properties of the soil. I have no question, but that the pea crop would impart much more fertility to the soil, if turned under in its green stage, but so much of its beneficial effects would be counter-balanced by the unfriendly action of the sun's rays, that it would, upon the whole, be better, in the end, to turn the stock upon them, and let them cut and tear the vines to pieces, and about the first or fifteenth of January, after they have taken the rains, frosts and freezes of the winter, then turn them under. True, much of their fertilizing qualities would thus be lost, but, on the other hand, less damage is done by turning over the soil. In view of these difficulties, I am in favor of the plan of leaving the whole crop to rot upon the ground, and not turn it in at all. The plan which I should recommend, would be to select that pea which produces the most luxuriant vine, sow them broadcast about the first of June, and then leave them to themselves. (*B.*)

II.—COTTON CULTURE—TOPPING.

MR. EDITOR: As the season for working cotton is approaching, every thing connected with that subject will be of immediate interest to your readers. I have, therefore, sent you herewith a scrap which I cut from a communication over the signature of E. JENKINS, Choctaw co., Miss., which appeared in the *Southern Cultivator*. One object which I had in sending the article for publication, is to draw out some of your correspondents on the subject of topping cotton. My own observation is, that it is an operation requiring the most judicious attention to the circumstances of the crop. I have seen it done with great good, and, again, with great injury to the plant.

Very respectfully, yours, UCHEE.

"I will now give you my mode of preparing land and cultivating cotton, which I have tried for several years. After pursuing different plans, I have fallen back on the old one as the best. About the middle of January or 1st of February, I commenced throwing four furrows together with a turning plow—rows, of course, laid off agreeable to the strength of land; about the last of March, I commence turning out the middles, which makes the ridge complete, and new nearly to the top; from the 5th to the 10th of April, I plant, by opening the ridges

with a very small scooter, covering with a wooden harrow, which leaves the whole ridge clean and clear of clods. About the time half the seed make their appearance above ground, I put every hand to scraping it out with the hoes. I generally finish in ten days or two weeks at furthest. Meanwhile I work out my corn, and then return to my cotton with turning plows, and bar it off; follow with the hoes, chop through, leaving about two stalks in a place, and take all the grass from the drills, the plows covering up all in the middles. I then return to my corn, and work it out. By this time my cotton is large enough to receive dirt. I put the mould to the cotton, and throw the dirt back, and plow out the middles, following the hoes; then it is very nearly to a stand, and cover up what grass there may be left in the drill by the plows. Thenceforward I manage it according to the season. If dry, I run sweeps until laid by; if wet, I endeavor to keep my ridges well up, with turning plows, so as to keep the water drained from the cotton. About the first day of August I top it, wet or dry, which I consider a great advantage, checking the growth of the stalk, causing the forms to stick better, and bolls to mature sooner."

DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES.

I.—POWER OF THE WEST IN REGARD TO COTTON MANUFACTORIES.

We are indebted to the New-York Courier & Enquirer for the following most intelligent article:

The leading exports of cotton goods from Great Britain, and during the year ending June 16th, 1846, were:

Plain cottons	663,771,123 yards.
Printed and dyed cottons	327,465,580 "
Cotton yarns	146,243,690 lbs.
Cotton thread	2,960,798 "

This is the most recent estimate before us, and is sufficiently near the present condition of this trade for the purpose of our argument.

We have heretofore endeavored to show that, on the coal measures of the central west, there are peculiar facilities for the cleansing of our great staple, of from 10 to 14 per cent. waste, and for twisting it into yarns and plain fabrics for export as well as for home consumption.

We have shown that nearness to the material gives us more than an equivalent to the cheap labor and capital of any district in Europe in the fabrication of these goods. Let us now advance one step further, and see what advantages we have in producing "printed and dyed cottons." What natural forces have we to put in the equation against the natural and artificial forces abroad? As we are not familiar with this particular branch of business, and have very few of the detailed statistics relative to it, we can only advert to the leading facts.

The great calico printing district is in the county of Lancaster, England. The fitness of that district for the business is found in its coal for power and heat, and for giving the atmosphere of the rooms, where the processes are carried on, that precise humidity required for the combination and "fixing" of the colors; in its ample supply of pure water for washing the goods, and for other purposes; in its facilities of communication with the seaport, and with the food districts east of the Cambrian Mountains; and lastly, in its facilities of obtaining cotton, dyestuffs, and food from abroad, and of sending abroad the finished produce.

Now, on the banks of the Ohio, Wabash, Greene, Tradewater, and Saline Rivers, the water is as abundant and pure as that of the Mersey; coals can be had at three shillings instead of seven shillings per ton, subsistence at less than one-half, cotton at over 25 per cent. less.

The most important coloring substance used by the calico printer is madder. This grows on a calcareous soil, and perhaps in no part of the world can it be produced in greater luxuriance and excellence, than in the central West. In one of Commissioner Ellsworth's Reports, if we remember, the results of a field of madder are given by some gentleman from Ohio—we think that the net profit

per acre, was stated to be over $200. The present price is about fifteen cents per lb., and our New-England print works obtain their supply from abroad. Weld and woad, as we presume, could be grown on the Ohio as easily as in Europe. Quercitron and sumac are abundant. All the acids and alkalies can there be made with great cheapness, and the dye woods of Honduras and Brazil are nearer the mouth of the Tennessee than to the mouth of the Mersey.

From one of the sheets annually published at Lowell, that of 1847, we take the following statistics of the Merrimac Manufacturing Company: With a capital of $2,000,000, and 1773 operatives, this company makes weekly 253,000 yards of cloth, Nos. 22 to 40, and print 225,000 yards. The yearly consumption of anthracite coal is 5,000 tons; of charcoal, 3,500 bushels; of wood, 200 cords; of starch, 100,000 lbs.; of flour, 425 bbls.; and of oil, including lard oil, 11,000 gallons. This company, according to the statement of Mr. A. A. Lawrence, in Hunt's Merchants' Magazine, has averaged 14 per cent. dividends for the last eleven years, and its stock is, we believe, regarded as one of the best investments in the country.

Now the operations of this company are distant from almost every material that enters into printed cottons. The cotton comes via Mobile and New-Orleans, from the interior of Mississippi Valley. The coals are dug out of the mountains of Pennsylvania. The dye stuffs are imported from Europe and South America. The flour comes from the Lakes. The food of the 1700 operatives is, to a large extent, transported from the grain fields of Michigan and the prairies of Illinois.

Under all these disadvantages, the proprietors of this immense workshop are receiving large dividends when competing with Manchester rivals and under a low tariff. We are told that the extensive print works of the Messrs. Dunnell's at Pawtucket are equally profitable, and that the managers of both establishments consider themselves independent of government protection.

The point at which we aim is this: If the Merrimac company can hold their own even in competition with print works in England, why cannot the capitalists and factors of this city establish print works directly on the coal and subsistence fields of the central West; within sight of the cotton fields, and where flour, and starch, and madder, &c., can be had without the expense of barrels; and with these prints, when the home market is supplied, send 327,465,580 yards to countries now supplied by Great Britain, and get the control of the commodities for which these yards are exchanged. Let any one calculate the savings to be made on the materials enumerated, and he will not doubt but that, in the greater cheapness of these materials—to say nothing of cheaper subsistence and lighter taxes—we have far more than an equivalent to the cheaper capital and cheaper labor (if indeed, either are cheaper) of England. Are these coal measures of the West too distant for our use? Practically, they are not further from New-York than the important waterfalls of New-England were from Boston until the last twenty-five years. It is now far easier to plant a colony of calico printers on the Ohio than it was to plant such a colony on the Merrimac twenty years ago, and New-York can now build up more manufacturing establishments on the Ohio, and in the next ten years, than Boston has built on the New-England waterfalls in the last thirty years. Boston, with the most praiseworthy shrewdness and energy, made herself the exponent and factor of the manufactures of Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Vermont and Maine. Her present wealth and population show what can be done on a barren soil, under a rigorous climate. Why should not New-York seize the advantages offered by a soil unsurpassed for fertility, and by minerals, and materials, which, in the same abundance and convenience, cannot be found elsewhere.

Some of our contemporaries have charged us with advocating the principles of free trade, or that the facts we have stated conclusively proved the absurdity of protective duties. It is said, that if in cheaper subsistence and materials we have an advantage over England of the entire cost of capital and labor, then why should we ask protection against that capital and labor? Now, everybody knows that New-England even needs no protection in these *coarse* cotton fabrics, much less is protection needed by the South and West. We should be glad to see the duties on these coarse goods entirely removed, because they are inoperative, and because their existence is made use of abroad to show that the natural advantages of which we boast, have no existence. But everybody ought to know

and ought to have the frankness to admit, that the present stability of our manufacturers of coarse cottons, plain and printed, is owing to the protection thrown around them in the outset. Had there been no protection there would now be but little manufacturing skill on the seaboard, and the coal and subsistence districts of the interior would find it no easy thing to import machinery and skill from England.

The tariff of 1846 bears hardly on the New-England cotton mills, because it has thrown too many of them on coarse work, and thereby glutted the market with coarse goods. Had the tariff of 1842 remained in force, we might now, perhaps, be as independent of England in making number 30 goods as we are in making number 10. The advocates of protection have always contended that the chief object of a high tariff was the perfecting of our domestic skill, the attraction of skill from abroad, the development of our natural advantages, and the use of such system, arrangements and economy, as would make us independent of foreign nations without government protection. If we have already obtained that result in the making of coarse cottons, why should we not continue the same policy in order to perfect ourselves in the making of finer fabrics. The South and West, now about to introduce manufactures on their most favorable sites, should remember that skill and machinery have been brought within their reach by the protection thrown around the infant manufactures of the seaboard; and the benefits that they are now receiving in machinery from the workshops of Lowell, Springfield, Taunton, Patterson, and elsewhere in this vicinity, are, perhaps, more than compensation for the higher prices they have occasionally paid our protected manufacturers for cotton goods.

2.—COTTON MANUFACTURES OF ENGLAND.

It will be interesting in our country, and especially in the South, to examine the statistics of the English cotton manufactures, for the last three years, showing the value, kind of goods made, profits, etc. We must gather our experience from this quarter.

Estimate of difference in £'s of the sums accruing to the trade in cotton manufactures, during the years 1847, 1848, 1849, and 1850, to pay for the expenses of fuel, machinery, drugs for dyeing, printing, bleaching, interest of capital, and every kind of wages, profits, &c., after deducting the actual cost of the raw material.

	1847—lbs.	1848—lbs.	1849—lbs.	1850—lbs.
Cotton consumed in Gt. Britain	421,385,238	591,595,083	626,710,160	584,000,000
Waste in spinning this, 1¾ oz. per lb	46,089,038	64,705,683	68,546,460	63,875.000
Production of yarns	375,296,200	526,889,400	558,163,700	520,125,000
Disposed as follows:				
Exported in yarns and threads	119,422,254	131,674,230	153,761,000	123,977,000
Exported manufactured goods reduced into weight of yarn	191,969,597	204,852,157	267,981,935	231,956,430
Consumed at home and not otherwise enumerated	63,904,349	190,363,013	136,420,765	164,191,570
As above	375,296,200	526,889,400	558,163,700	520,125,000
	6¼ p. lb. £	4 1-16 p. lb. £	4 11-12 p. lb. £	7 2-9 p. lb. £
Average cost of cotton in each year	10,754,100	10,014,000	12,838,850	17,574,000

Declared value of exports as per published statements.

	£	£	£	£
Of thread and yarns.....	7,882,000	5,957,000	7,129,000	6,820,700
Manufactured goods.....	17,717,000	17,382,000	19,761,000	21,432,000
Estimated in the same proportion as the declared value of the exported goods, plus ½.....	7,863,000	21,537,000	13,412,000	20,227.600
Total value of production....	33,462,000	44,876,000	40,302,000	48,480,300
Deduct the cost of cotton as above.....	10,754,100	10,014,000	12,838,350	17,574,000
Sums remaining to be distributed as above stated.	22,707,900	34,862,000	27,463,150	30,906,300

Our table shows clearly what we have maintained for some time past, that our productions in 1850 have consisted in a greater measure than formerly of fine and finished goods, induced by a higher range of prices of the raw material. When the latter is plentiful, and therefore cheap, we are able to produce low yarns, heavy domestics, and stout cloth generally, to advantage. When cotton, on the other hand, is high, or only comparatively so, we economise in every way, and bestow more labor upon it, in order to make the cost of the raw material less felt. We know from experience, that certain coarse articles are not made at all when cotton rises above 5d per pound. In 1848 we manufactured coffee and sugar bags of cotton, and double the quantity usually produced of stout domestic. In 1850 we abandoned the spinning of the coarsest numbers of mule and water, because they did not pay. Our table shows further, that we consumed about 42,000,000 pounds of cotton less last year, than the preceding one; but the country paid about 4,700,000*l.* stg. more for the smaller quantity in 1850, than for the larger one consumed in 1849. The surplus remaining in 1850, as enumerated at the head of our table, is 3,443,150*l.* more in that year than the previous ones, therefore less than the difference in the value of cotton; but as stocks of cotton at lower prices than the average one of 1850 remained in the manufacturers' hands at the beginning of the year, the actual difference has probably been much less.* Our statement, which is made out with care, will, we hope, afford a correct comparison of the state of the cotton manufacturing trade, if a cycle of years be taken together, although it may not give an accurate indication of its condition in any one single year, from the above stated circumstances.

3.—SOUTHERN COTTON MILLS.

The following letter is from Gen. C. T. James, a gentleman who has built as many cotton mills, and set in motion as large a number of cotton spindles, as any other man in England or America. His remarks ought to arrest the attention of all parties at the South. Gen. James, the author of this communication, was elected a few days since to the United States Senate, from the state of Rhode-Island. We published his biography last December.

The letters and papers forwarded by you to my address, have all come to hand, and I have been much pleased by the perusal of their contents. In yours of December 24, 1850, you request of me such suggestions as will aid in exciting an interest in the subject of cotton manufactures at the South. I have been over the ground so many times, that it would be difficult for me to offer any suggestions that are new, or any that I have not made before; and what I can give you will be little more than repetitions, and most of which would occur as readily to you as to me. One would suppose that the people, of themselves, at the South, if men of only ordinary judgment and reflection, would readily discern the almost innumerable incentives to enter into the cotton manufacturing business. The Southern people purchase large quantities of cotton goods for their own use, on which they have to pay heavy profits to the Northern manufacturers, besides the cost of freight, commissions, &c., by which the North is enriched. Suppose they had to purchase their cotton at the

North, they ought even in that case to reserve the profits of manufacturing, and the wages of manufacturing labor to themselves, instead of transmitting them to the North, which so enormously swells the wealth of New-England. The North manufactures for herself and for the whole country, and purchases her cotton at the South. The South should do the same, even if her cotton were obtained at the North. But in this business she possesses a tremendous advantage, which she only has to use to monopolize the business. She has the cotton on the spot, the product of her own fields, and that cotton costs the Southern manufacturer less per pound, by about two cents, than it costs the manufacturer at the North; and this saving alone, from the cost of the manufactured fabric at the Northern mill, will amount to at least six per cent. per annum on the capital of the mill, and which, added to the profits of Northern manufacturers, must, in my opinion, be much greater than the profits of the cotton field. Why Southern men, knowing these facts, and frequently discussing the subject of the increase of the wealth of the North, do not act voluntarily on the suggestions to which they give birth, it is difficult to conceive, unless apathy and a lack of energy and enterprise be the cause. The Southern people are very sensitive, and naturally so, on the subject of the rapidly-growing power and influence of the North. They are extremely restive under the result of that rapid growth, and though entirely aware of the cause, take no pains to keep up in the race. Does the South expect that the people of the North will keep looking back over their shoulders to mark the tardy progress of the South, and so regulate their own pace as to just prevent their heels from being trodden on by those in the rear? If so, her expectations are very unreasonable, and will never be realized. The race is open to all; and the South has the ability, and only lacks the industry and energy, to come out ahead. The power and influence of the North are the legitimate fruits of her intelligence, her population, and her wealth. These are constantly enhanced by her commercial and manufacturing operations, of which the South is nearly or comparatively destitute. Mechanical and manufacturing labor is always worth in market at least 30 to 50 per cent. more than agricultural labor; of course, in proportion to the amount of the former employed in proportion to the latter, wealth is so much the more rapidly increased. And how stands the case? Almost the entire labor of the South is employed in agricultural pursuits, while, to supply the demand, in a very great measure, for almost every manufactured article of every description, they are dependent on the North. In other words, the Southern planter barters with the North the labor of three or four agricultural hands for that of two, at the most three, mechanics or manufacturing operatives. Is it then to be wondered at, that the South does not keep pace with the North?

And how shall she remove this discrepancy, and abate the evil? Not by fretting and scolding. These will never advance her a single inch, nor result in a single benefit. If she will accelerate her pace, and keep sway with the North, and achieve and maintain the relative power and influence she truly deserves, she must do as the North does. She must cease to purchase from abroad every manufactured article she wants, from a steam engine to a penny whistle, and make them for herself; and, if need be, for others. There is no branch of business, especially at this moment, that is more worthy of her attention than the manufacture of cotton; there is none in which she can so readily engage, none more profitable. There is no one, to her, one-half as important; no one that would so rapidly increase her wealth and population, and enhance her political power and influence, and enable her to cease to be tributary to the North. No doubt, sir, such suggestions have frequently found a place in your mind. In my view, they are the most powerful ones that can be offered. And if these, and the train of argument to be deduced from them, prove insufficient to accomplish the object you have in view, it might as well be given up in despair.

I had written thus far before yours of December 27th, and the Picayune, with your second communication, were received. I have perused your second number, and will only subjoin a remark or two. What you have stated in that number is a mass of facts, and facts which I am fully prepared to substantiate, if necessary, still more firmly than I have already done. You will perceive that

there is a coincidence of thought and sentiment between us in relation to the manner in which the South must, if in any way, place herself on a level with the North. She must pursue this course, or despite all threats and movements tending to a dissolution of the Union, her progress in point of wealth must be comparatively slow, and her relative political power and influence constantly diminished. These important facts cannot be too plainly spread out, nor too forcibly urged. To practise on the lessons they teach, is the only means by which the South can sustain and build up herself, in competition with the North, in any event. Suppose her to secede from the Union. What then? Unless she extends her manufacturing operations, and thus prepares to administer to her own wants, what will she gain? Truly nothing. She will only cast off her dependence on the North, to become dependent on Europe, like a people who revolutionize their government, and depose one tyrant to become subject to another. Why does the South, on the absorbing question of the day, have to submit, in a great measure, to the dictum of the North and West! Only because they have gained such a tremendous start in the industrial race, thereby drawing immense masses of wealth and population from every point of the compass, while the South has been content to enrich the North with the fruits of her labors, and to offer no inducement for the prosecution of manufacturing and mechanical industry.

If on any points on which you may wish to treat, my aid will be desirable, please inform me definitely, and it shall be cheerfully rendered, as far as my ability and opportunity will permit. Truly yours,

CHAS. T. JAMES.

4.—SOUTH-CAROLINA SHOE FACTORY.

We were among a number of our citizens who yesterday afternoon visited, by invitation, the new shoe manufactory recently established by Messrs. Carew & Hopkins, at the corner of King and John Streets. The object of the proprietors in desiring the attendance of their fellow-citizens on this occasion, was to give them practical evidence of the mode of manufacturing this indispensable article, and showing that shoes can be as well manufactured in the City of Charleston, as in Lynn, (Mass.) or any northern town. These gentlemen deserve much credit for their enterprise in this matter, and have set an example which we hope will stimulate others to pursue a similar course in other branches of mechanism.

The building in which the work is carried on, is three stories in height, and each story divided into compartments devoted to the various workmen engaged in manufacturing shoes. The basement story is used for dressing leather, and the other two occupied by the cutters, peggers, finishers, &c. We have not the technical knowledge to convey to the mind of our readers, the particulars of the process of manufacture, in such a manner as to make it clearly understood; nor is it necessary, further than to say, that the business is conducted in a masterly style.

It is proper to say, however, that there was placed before the observer, the leather from which the shoe was to be made, and by passing through the room, he could see the whole mechanism performed, until the material became "a shoe that was a shoe." Not only the common russet brogan, generally used for field negroes, but the genteel, well-finished shoe, that would grace the foot of a dandy footman, or the proud and haughty dining-room servant. Our free-soil revilers, ignorant of our institutions, and fanatical in their views, may smile at this last remark, but it is made in sober earnest and truthfulness. It is well known, and well understood, among slave owners, that there are grades and ranks among the slaves, as clearly defined and strongly marked, as is the higher classes. In dress, this is outwardly exhibited to a greater degree, than with their masters, and the higher classes of slaves are as choice and critical in the selection of articles of dress, as the white nabob.

We learn that Messrs. Carew & Hopkins give employment to upwards of one hundred persons in their factory, at the present time, and it is now in its infancy. It is their intention to extend and enlarge their operations; and we trust, indeed we are sure, that they will be patronized so liberally as to induce them to quadruple their present force.

There is one feature in this establishment, which will prove highly advantageous to a number of the poor females and children of our city. The sewing up

of the shoe, termed "closing," is given out from the factory, at stated times, to such as apply for work, to be returned and paid for at prescribed periods. Many families, by this means, are enabled to take home work, and be employed on it at intervals, when their household services do not occupy their time; who would not otherwise be enabled to earn anything. Children, too, not old enough to be sent out to work, can aid in this labor, and therefore, not only add something to the support of a family, but acquire habits of industry and application, that will be of incalculable use in after life.

After the company had enjoyed the gratification of seeing the admirable arrangements of the manufactory, they were handsomely entertained by the proprietors, and many well-deserved compliments paid to the energy and public spirit which induced them to engage in the patriotic undertaking.—*Courier.*

5.—STEAM FACTORY AT LAURENS.

It may not be known to our readers at a distance, that our village is rapidly advancing in every business that is calculated to make a village prosperous. Besides the many large and handsome general assortment stores, which are surpassed by none in the upper part of the state—apothecaries', shoemakers', saddle and harness, tin, and jewelry shops, &c.—in fact, everything needful;—our industrious and enterprizing townsman, Mr. Edward Hix, coachmaker, having purchased the necessary material and machinery, is erecting buildings to put up a steam factory, on the lot below Mr. Todd's store, consisting of a saw mill, grist mill, planing and morticing machine, and a variety of other smaller machines; and from Mr. Hix's well-known energy and perseverance, it will not be long before the dark smoke of the steam horse will be peering aloft over our hitherto quiet liittle village—the pioneer to her future prosperity and importance.—*Laurensville Herald.*

6.—HOME MANUFACTURE.

Every enterprise calculated to render the South independent should meet with encouragement and support. It is all-important that we should have within ourselves the means by which we may be fed and clothed, and our necessary wants supplied.

As an evidence of the ability for manufacturing cloths, we have in our office samples of cassimere, which we will be pleased to show to those who may call, that will compare favorably with a like description of goods, come from what quarter they may.

These samples are from the manufacturing establishment of Messrs. Carson, Young & Grier, of Charlotte, N C.—with which place we are, by the way, shortly to be connected by Rail-road—who have engaged extensively in the making of this article. Experiment has tested the permanence of the color and lasting qualities of these cassimeres, and they can therefore be confidently warranted to purchasers. It is the intention of the firm mentioned—whose establishment is located at Rock Island, Mecklenburg Co., N. C.—to engage in manufacturing black cloth, shortly, and we trust they may receive such encouragement as will be as profitable to themselves, as it will be advantageous to the South.

Messrs. Wiley, Banks & Co. are the agents for these goods, and will always have a full stock on hand.

7.—LAUREL FALLS FACTORY, SOUTH CAROLINA.

We are pleased to learn from a friend, who has kindly furnished us with the statement of its earnings, that this establishment, located near Lexington Court House, is in a prosperous condition. It was started with a capital of $10,000, and is under the skilful and judicious management of Mr. U V. Bacon. The statement below shows its expenses and income for four weeks:

1851.	MANUFACTURES.	
March 3-8,	4,100 yards osnaburgs, at 11c	$451 00
10-15,	4,422 " " at 10c	442 20
17-22,	4,433 " " at 10c	443 30
"	120 pounds yarn, at 18c	21 60
24-29,	4,508 yards osnaburgs, at 10c	450 80
"	445 pounds yarn, at 18c	80 10
		$1,889 00

EXPENSES.

March 3-8,	2,225 pounds cotton, at 10c	$222 50
10-15,	2,432 " " at 9½c	231 04
17-22,	2,570 " " at 10c	257 00
24-29,	2,894 " " at 10c	289 40
	Hire of hands four weeks	300 61
	Commissions, freight, oil, &c	75 00
		$1,375 55
	Cost of manufacture	1,889 00
	Profits for four weeks	$513 45

As our correspondent observes, this is a sample of what the South can do. On a capital of $10,000 these gross profits seem to be enormous. We presume a per centage for wear and tear of machinery, and other incidental expenses, always enter into such a calculation as the above.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—COMMERCE OF THE BRAZOS, TEXAS.

Statement, showing amount of produce and merchandise shipped to and from Galveston and the Brazos River, from Sept. 1, 1849, to August 1, 1850.

Bales of cotton received	11,043	
Bales to arrive, (estimated,)	1,500	
Direct shipments from the river to New-Orleans and New-York	1,457	
Total Bales	14,000	
Hhds. sugar received	2,900	
Barrels molasses received	3,400	
Estimated value of hides, deer-skins, pecans, &c., received from the Brazos River		$20,000

The value of assorted merchandise, shipped up the river from Galveston, as appears from entries for insurance *here*, $155,525. Insurance and premium of from 1 per cent. to 1½ per cent.

The probable amount of goods shipped from Galveston without insurance may be put down at $40,000, and the value of shipments that are insured *through* from New-Orleans, New-York, and Boston, and other northern ports, may be estimated at $200,000.

We summon up the year's business thus:—

14 000 bales cotton at $50 each	$700,000	
2,900 hhds. sugar at $50 each	145,000	
3,400 barrels molasses at $8 each	27,200	
Estimated value of deer skins, &c	20,000	
Value of shipments from Galveston, insured		$155,525
do. do. do. do. not insured		40,000
do. do. insured through from New-York and elsewhere		200,000
Showing a total for the year of		$1,287,725

If the canal project, to connect Galveston Bay with the River Brazos, is carried out, there will be a saving on this amount of business alone,—say—

In insurance ½ per cent. on $1,247,525	$6,238
In freight on cotton, say 50 cts. on 14,000 bales	7,000
" " on sugar, say $1 on 2,900 hhds	2,900
" " on molasses, say 50 cts. on 3,400 barrels	1,700
" " on merchandise and other produce	10,000
Total	$27,838

The business for the year ending 1st September, 1851, may safely be estimated at 20 to 30 per cent. greater than for the year ending 1st September, 1850, and with the facility the canal would afford for the better conducting the business commanded by the valley of the Brazos, the increase in the next three or four years cannot be correctly estimated.

Galveston, August, 1st, 1850. D. H. & Co.

2.—COMMERCE &c. OF SAVANNAH.*

EXPORTS FROM SAVANNAH OF COTTON, RICE AND LUMBER, FOR TEN YEARS, AND VALUE REAL ESTATE.

Years.	Total Bags Cotton.	Total lbs. Cotton.	Total trcs. Rice	Total feet of Lumber.	Value Real Estate
1825	137,695	49,570.200	7,231	—	—
1826	190,578	68,608,080	11,455	—	—
1839	199,176	71,703,360	21,332	—	—
1840	284,249	102,329,640	24,392	—	—
1841	147,280	53,020,800	23,587	14,295,200	—
1842	222,254	81,011,444	22,064	8,390,400	—
1843	280,826	101,097,360	26,281	7,518,750	$2,853,900
1844	244,575	90,492.650	28,543	5,933,251	3,245,827
1845	304,544	115,726,720	29,217	8,270,582	3,279,988
1846	186,306	74,522,400	32,147	18,585,644	3,306,734
1847	234,151	98,343,420	31,739	10,083,449	3,462,073
1848	243,233	104,590,190	30,136	16,449,558	3,600,000

We shall be obliged to any one who will furnish this statistics for 1849 and 1850. [ED.]

RECEIPTS OF COTTON AT SAVANNAH, FOR TEN YEARS, TO 1st SEPTEMBER.

1838,	206,048	bales.	1844,	243,420	bales.
1839,	196,618	"	1845,	305,742	"
1840,	295,156	"	1846,	189,076	"
1841,	146,273	"	1847,	236,029	"
1842,	228,396	"	1849,	391,372	"
1843,	299,173				

3.—COMMERCE OF RIO JANEIRO.

FLOUR IMPORTED, &c. IN DIFFERENT YEARS.

Years.	From U. S.	From elsewhere.	Total Imported.	Stock on hand Jan. 1.	Re-exported.	Consumption.	Prices 1st quality, Jan. 1.	Amer. Arr.
1837	52,662	73,918	126,580	9,500	15,987	116,123	22 a24	91
1838	97,603	68,103	165,706	3,970	31,463	123,813	19 a22	149
1839	137,137	10,105	147,242	14,400	50,026	107,516	19 000	151
1840	162,783	12,697	175,480	4,000	4,500	174,520	20 000	144
1841	217,461	24,915	243,376	2,260	71,191	206,260	19 000	160
1842	149,448	19,772	169,320	42,457	65,058	119,920	14 000	180
1843	207,528	8,826	216,354	49,742	73,311	128,500	16 000	210
1844	165,401	8,593	173,994	61,014	54,268	132,000	15 000	210
1845	166,759	20,404	187,168	58,000	46,776	143,887	15 500	243
1846	197,757	16,823	214,580	54,500	84,812	145,508	19 a20	263
1847	180,848	10,027	190,875	41,679	64,123	136,610	21 a22	258
1848	226,613	18,298	244,911	32,000	57,860	139,885	20 a21	319
1849	188,078	8.777	196,855	79,809	54,713	146,591	17 a18	437
1850	180,609	26,309	206,918	67,000	48,181	159,621	16 a15	314
1851	.....	..	..	67,765	..	..	15 a16	.....

* From White's Statistics of Georgia.

EXPORTS OF PRODUCE IN 1850.

United States.	Coffee Bags.	Sugar Cases,	Sugar Bags, Bbls. &c.	Hides Pieces.
Baltimore	155,409	—	—	38,298
Boston	7,419	—	—	2,893
Charleston	19,261	—	—	1,000
Mobile	3,600	—	—	..
New-York	163,394	—	—	80,491
New-Orleans	253,372	—	—	..
Philadelphia	31,630	—	—	..
Savannah	2,180	—	—	..
Total	639,265	..	..	122,682
Europe	692,298	6,313	17,722	187,172
Elsewhere	15,374	431	35,275	..

EXPORTS OF COFFEE IN 1848–9–50.

Year.	United States.	Europe.	Elsewhere.
1848	806,919	867,028	24,121
1849	631,297	811,315	11,463
1850	639,265	692,298	15,374

EXPORTS OF SUGAR AND HIDES IN SAME YEARS.

Year.	Sugar Cases.	Sugar Bags and Bbls.	Hides.
1848	2,136	16,511	724,115
1849	3,199	19,259	506,463
1850	6,714	52,997	309,854

4.—ENTERPRISES OF PHILADELPHIA.

The Board of Trade, in its last valuable report, uses the following language:

The Board, in common with the whole community, are looking forward with much solicitude for the local results of the decennial census—not so much with reference to mere population, which has been at least approximated, but to other statistical information which will be disclosed. Unless we are much mistaken, it will illustrate, most strikingly on the part of this community, progress and enterprise, under embarrassments such as in the same degree will not be found elsewhere. Philadelphia, with its population of 409,045 souls, with its manufactures, its coal and iron exports, takes a proud stand among the business communities of the world, and that, too, at the end of a year, during which the largest conflagration occurred in this city, known within the memory of living man; and whilst the great mineral fabric, on which, next to coal, the prosperity of the state depends, is, as we have said, so painfully and lamentably depressed. If we can hope for nothing more, let us not relinquish the expectation that Congress, with the spectacle before its eyes of half the furnaces of Pennsylvania out of blast, and nearly all her rolling mills stopped—with thousands of industrious mining mechanics out of employment: and in this branch of manufacture, a dependence on Great Britain, almost as complete as when acts of Parliament prohibited our iron fabrics; that Congress will do some little for Pennsylvania interests.

The directors have great reason to congratulate the Board and the mercantile community generally, on the rapid progress making in the great Central Railway, to the West. What has been done, and is now doing, is well known to us all and need not be dwelt on particularly here. In less than two years, we may look fordward to an uninterrupted transit by railway, from the Delaware to the Ohio; and soon after, if the enterprise and liberality of our Western friends be not abated, to a connection with the Lakes and Mississippi, through the States of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. Thus, the great central route being completed, (for so we may regard it,) the citizens of Philadelphia and Pennsylvania ought soon to think of the other territorial advantages of which they may avail themselves. The enormous trade of the Cumberland and Susquehanna valleys, now only in its infancy, belongs, and can be made to come, to Philadelphia. Even when a portion of it finds its way to the head of the Chesapeake, by the Tidewater Canal, the superiority of Philadelphia as a market overcomes all the local attractions of Baltimore, and brings it here. But even if this were not so, if proper attention

ous modes of approaching Philadelphia
gence from the state works, Lancaster and
very mode of approach to our metropolis
The widening of the Union Canal, the
mbia Rail-way, the completion of the road
e construction of the mountain division of the
nt to Philadelphia—important, too, in more ways
other consideration, it would be enough to re-
, westward, a large amount of Philadelphia capital
n Harrisburg, eastward, it is a mere question how
r there it must all come at *last*. That the construc-
s is of great moment, is more apparent than ever, now
Baltimore are completed from Harrisburg. Let Phila-
Baltimore is nearer Columbia than it is to us. This
ance we can only neutralize, by improving our communi-
etween the Susquehanna and the Delaware.

we have said, that we should look elsewhere than to the cen-
d to lines of central communication. From the mouth of the
bor of Erie, there is not one mile of rail-road constructed; and
pulation, according to the census of 1850, of upwards of 400,000
to contribute, by their industry and products, to our business
A rail-road communication from the head waters of the West branch
of Erie, is known to be practicable. Surveys have been made, and
cost ascertained. Philadelphia has too long turned her back on that
region; for wonderful it is, at least in its mineral resources, with its inex-
and accessible masses of iron and bituminous coal, through which, by
bridle paths, (for there are yet, to our shame, be it spoken, wildernesses in
ylvania) the traveler passes from the mouth of the Sennemahoney, to the
waters of the Alleghany and of the lake streams. While New-York is push-
forward its Erie Rail-road along *our* lake shore, and through *our* neglected ter-
ory, we are content to see not only north-western Pennsylvania, but all the in-
rmediate territory, influenced by adverse policy to us, pass away to commercial
allegiance in another state. It is high time that our eyes should be directed in
this direction. It has ceased to be a question of rival routes. And whenever
these improvements north-westward from the Susquehanna shall be seriously be-
gun, then taking Sunbury and Catawissa as the point on which the river is ulti-
mately reached, Philadelphia, with its works extending north from Harrisburg,
and north-westward from the head waters of the Schuylkill, may claim it all, be-
yond the reach of rivalry.

5.—VALUE OF THE LAKE COMMERCE OF THE U. S.

Lake Erie

Names of Ports.	Imports.	Exports.	Total value of Exports and Imports.
Buffalo	$22,143,404	$37,996,658	$60,140,062
Silver Creek	212,819	107,081	312,905
Barcelona	217,789	121,394	339,183
Dunkirk	903,341	486,398	1,389,734
Erie	1,300,887	2,531,955	3,832,833
Conneaut	389,050	240,405	599,455
Ashtabula	307,757	421,007	729,665
Fairport	343,658	450,850	794,508
Cleveland	7,030,957	6,855,556	13,886,513
Black River	203,345	154,529	557,845
Vermillion	150,000	207,200	357,200
Huron	469,807	790,201	1,260,089
Sandusky	7,010,304	3,099,939	10,110,048
Lower Sandusky	189,163	108,300	297,463
Port Clinton	38,978	24,755	63,733
Kelley's Island	7,852,021	11,679	11,679
Toledo	1,050,915	5,263,464	13,115,486
Monroe	3,502,666	812,105	4,863,023
Brest	13,495	18,956	18,956
Gibraltar	54,043	13,816	13 816
Detroit	7,325	2,781,192	6,283,858

Names of Ports.	Exports.	Imports.	Total value of Exports and Imports.
Lake and River St. Clair.			
Algonac	$13,495	$198,793	$212,288
St. Clair	51,043	71,524	132,567
Trenton	7,325	25,553	32,878
Mount Clemens	84,000	187,790	271,790
Lake Huron.			
Sault St. Marie	151,134	340,800	491,934
Mackinac	143,400	212,818	356,218
Lake Michigan.			
Green Bay	151,537	80.830	232,367
Manitowoc	49,129	13,719	62,848
Sheboygan	571,800	12,191	583,991
Port Washington	278.311	48,267	326,579
Milwaukie	3,828,650	2,098,469	5,927,119
Racine	1,452,750	650,950	2,103,700
Southport	629,791	583,608	1,213,399
Waukegan	69,081	283,107	352,188
St. Joseph's	672,892	543,894	1,216,787
Michigan City	28,915	369,168	398,083
Chicago	7,751,872	4,151,905	11,903,777

Lake Huron.

District of Mackinac—Tonnage ..... 1,919 77 cwt.
Value $75,000

Total value of exports and imports $848,152
Value of tonnage in aggregate 75,000

Lake Michigan.

Chicago District—Tonnage ..... 15,890 86 cwt.
Value $564,435

Total value of exports and imports $24,320,481
Value of tonnage in aggregate 564,435

Lake Erie Districts.

Buffalo Creek District—	Tonnage	44,744 49 cwt.
	Value Tonnage	$722,400
Presque Isle "	Tonnage	7,419 27
	Value	$328,000
Cuyahoga "	Tonnage	22,047 30
	Value	$936,640
Miami "	Tonnage	2,920 00
	Value	$94,000
Sandusky "	Tonnage	8,366 80
	Value	$379,335
Detroit "	Tonnage	34,067 19
	Value	$1,847,710

Total value of exports and imports $115,785,048
Value of tonnage in aggregate 5,308,083

Lake and River St. Clair.

Mt. Clemens District—Tonnage ..... —
Value ..... —
Total value of exports and imports $639,524
Value of tonnage in aggregate ..... —

RECAPITULATION.

Aggregate value of exports	$72,341,612
" " imports	69,251,955
Total value of exports and imports on all lakes	$141,593,567
Aggregate tonnage on all lakes	137,466
" value of tonnage on lakes	5,647,520

The foregoing figures are for the lakes enumerated, exclusive of Lakes Champlain, Superior and Ontario. The returns for the latter I must present you in a consolidated form, as follows:

	Valuation.
Lake Superior—exports and imports	——
Lake Ontario " "	$28,141,000
Lake Champlain " "	16,750,700
	44,891,700
Add lakes previously enumerated	141,593.567
	$186,485,267

Thus it appears that the aggregate valuation of the lake trade of the United States amounts to the enormous sum of $186,485,267, or more by $40,000,000 than the whole foreign export trade of the country.

Add also the tonnage of Lake Superior	——
" " " Ontario	60,829
" " " Champlain	4,746
With the previously given	137,466
And we have	203.041

as the aggregate tonnage employed on the lakes of the United States, of which 35,904 tons is foreign. To the valuation of the tonnage on the previous lakes append, for Lakes Superior, Champlain and Ontario, and we have the subjoined summary of aggregates:

Export and import trade of the lakes		$186,485.267
Value of American tonnage	$7,251,247	
Value of passenger trade		1,000,000
Gross aggregate		$187,485,267

TONS.

Tonnage	American	167,137	203,041 tons.
	Foreign	35,904	
Hands employed in the American trade			10,907
Steam tonnage			61,701
Sailing "			105,904

I will endeavor to give you the Western river trade in full in my next. Meanwhile I furnish you with the aggregates:

	1840.
Nett valuation of the commerce of the Western rivers	$256,233.820
Value of vessels	18,661,500
Number of hands employed on craft	35,047

RECAPITULATION.

Gross* valuation of lake commerce	$283,187,134
Western rivers	512,467,640
Aggregate valuation of internal commerce of the U. S.	$795,654,774

* The net valuation is assumed as half the gross valuation, for what are the exports of one place are the imports of another.

DEPARTMENT OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

SOUTH-WESTERN RAIL-ROAD CONVENTION AT NEW-ORLEANS.

New-Orleans and Jackson Rail-road—Vicksburg and Selma Rail-road—Selma and Tennessee River Road—Holly Springs and Jackson, Miss., Rail-road—Memphis and Louisville Rail-road.

This important Convention, which met in New-Orleans in April last, and which we regretted not being able to notice fully in our May number, was the result of a call from the friends of the Jackson Rail-road, but which was subsequently enlarged so as to include several other important kindred enterprises. We hail it as the advent of a new epoch in Louisiana, and indeed an epoch in the history of the South-west. Had there been a more general notice circulated and more time allowed, we cannot doubt several hundred delegates would have assembled from every part of the South and West. As it is, we hope yet to have such a convention in our city—Memphis and St. Louis having set the example.

The Convention met on Wednesday, April 18th, at the Municipal Hall. Large delegations appeared from the first, second and third municipalities of New-Orleans—from Lafayette, Carrollton, Jefferson City and the parishes of St. Charles, St. Mary, Baton Rouge, St. Helena, Washington, Livingston, and St. Tammany, *Louisiana*. Delegations also appeared from the counties of Pike, Lawrence, Copiah, Marshall, Hinds, Warren, *Mississippi*, and from *Tennessee* and *Kentucky*.

The Committee on Organization reported the following officers:

JAMES ROBB, *President*.

Vice-Presidents:

Hon. J. Wall, Miss.,	Hon. E. King, Tennessee,
" J. Baldwin, Louisiana,	C. S. Tarpley, Esq., Mississippi,
J. D. B. De Bow, Esq., "	Sheppard Brown, Esq., "
R. M. Davis, Esq., "	Hon. Clark Woodruff, Louisiana.
Glendy Burke, Esq., "	

Secretaries:

John Calhoun, Louisiana,	John Marshall, Mississippi,
J. De Ferriet, "	J. R. Dufrocq, Louisiana.

The following resolutions were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That a Committee of Ways and Means, consisting of nine members, be appointed by the President, to report to the convention on to-morrow afternoon at 5 o'clock, a plan for raising the necessary funds for the construction of a Rail-road from New-Orleans to Jackson, Miss.

Resolved, That a Committee on Plans, consisting of fifteen members, be appointed by the President, to whom the several routes and *projects* for the connection of New-Orleans and Jackson by a rail-road or otherwise, be referred, with instructions to report to the convention to morrow, at 5 o'clock, P. M.

These committees consist of the following gentlemen:

Committee of Ways and Means.—James Robb, Chairman; Leonard Matthews, W. H. Garland, Peter Conrey, Jr., Second Municipality; J. P. Benjamin, H. C. Cammack, R. W. Montgomery, First Municipality; Alexander Lesseps, Third Municipality; H. S. Buckner, Lafayette; Hon. I. T. Preston, Parish of Jefferson; Col. W. S. Campbell, Hon. Joshua Baldwin, J. P. Harrison, Glendy Burke and Alex D. Kelly, New-Orleans; W. L. Harris, Columbus; Col. W. W. Walters, Marshall county; C. S. Tarpley and Hon. W. L. Sharkey, Jackson; and T. A. Marshall, Vicksburg, Miss.

Committee on Plans and Projects.—Glendy Burke, Chairman; George Clark, J. M. Lapeyre, First Municipality; H. L. Ranney, C. D. Yancey, J. Baldwin, J. P. Harrison, Second Municipality; J. M. Cucullu, Third Municipality; P. N. Wood, L. De Saulles, Lafayette; John Hampson, Carrollton; Alfred Hennen, H. Smith, Parish of St. Tammany; John Wall, Amite county; J. R. Dufrocq, Parish of East Baton Rouge.

A letter was received from the President of the *Selma and Tennessee Rail road*, appointing William W. King, J. D. B. De Bow and J. R. Geddes, Esqrs., to represent the interests of said road.

Judge Wall, from the committee on the basis of voting, then reported that they had agreed to adopt the representation in the popular branch of the legislature as their ratio.

s, the following would be the number of votes for each delegation: First , Second Municipality 11, Third Municipality 5, Jefferson 3, St. Charles 1, Rouge 2, St. Helena 1, Washington 1, Livingston 1, St. Mary 1. *Mississip-ns:*—Amite county 2, Pike 1, Lawrence 1, Copiah 2, Marshall 4, Hinds 3,

W. Walter, of Holly Springs, Miss., offered the following resolutions:

ed, That the citizens of Central and North Mississippi be, and they are hereby y solicited to procure from the legislature of that state a charter to form a rail-road ackson, Miss., to Holly Springs, Miss.

olved, That should said charter be procured, then the cities of New-Orleans, La., and son, Miss., through their representatives in this convention, pledge themselves for a ral aid, (should the same be necessary,) in constructing said road.

Resolved, That the citizens of Western Tennessee and South-western Kentucky be, nd they are hereby, earnestly solicited to procure from the legislatures of their respective states, a charter for a rail-road, which shall extend from some point on the southern boundary line of Tennessee to some point in Kentucky, opposite or near to Cairo, Illinois.

Resolved, That should such charter be procured, then the city of New-Orleans, through its representatives in this convention, pledges itself for a very liberal aid in the construction of said road.

Col. Walter sustained his resolutions with one of the ablest, impressive, and at times eloquent rail-road speeches that we have ever listened to, and received the loudest plaudits. We are willing to forego our objections to some parts of the speech from its general merits. Col. W. commenced his address,

By hoping that he would be allowed to speak to the citizens of New-Orleans plainly, but without insulting them, and he hoped that if he showed that they would lose their trade in twelve months, unless they became active and energetic in assisting the march of improvement, they would not feel insulted. A great portion of the New-Orleans trade had within the last five or six months gone off by the way of Charleston, and unless energy was employed, the whole of the cotton trade of the Eastern and Western valley of the Mississippi would go by that route. The Memphis and Charleston Rail-road was now under contract, and if it was completed under present circumstances, what would become of the trade of the Tuscumbia valley, which was worth fifteen millions of dollars to New-Orleans? Why, it would go to Charleston. From Chattanooga to Charleston a bale of cotton could be conveyed for $2 90, and from Decatur it could be taken for $3 17, and this would be the means of drawing off trade from that quarter. Cotton, in the market of Charleston, was, on an average, one-eighth per cent. higher than in New-Orleans, and if it was only one-fourth of that advance, with a rail-road stretching to the westward, where would be the dividing line between it and New-Orleans? It would be in North Alabama, and in North Mississippi, and thus New-Orleans would lose yearly fifteen million dollars worth of trade. If New-Orleans did not become energetic, and sympathize with them in their attempts to build a rail-road, the people of Marshall county, Mississippi, from which place he came, and the other northern counties, would send 156,194 bales of cotton down to Mobile, by the line of road to be built from Mobile to Ohio, which would pass by their doors, and thus another ten millions would be lost. They had been used to look on New-Orleans as the Queen City of the South, and to point to her with pride; but now, when her glory was departing, they were either ready to raise her up, or to go hand and hand with Mobile, if she refused to sympathize with them. He spoke of flour being sent from Chicago to New-York, and said that ten years ago, if any one had said that New-Orleans would lose the trade of the Illinois River, the citizens would have laughed at him; yet now the trade went to Baltimore, Boston, and other cities of the East; and in a few years, if the citizens were not active, they would lose a hundred millions of dollars. He went on at great length to show the advancement which was going on rapidly in the country, and said that if New Orleans stood still, she would have at last to rely on the little state of Arkansas for her trade.

The Committee on Ways and Means made the following report:

Your committee respectfully report, that while having well considered the required ways and means of constructing a rail-road from the city of New-Orleans to Jackson, Miss., we are admonished by the lessons derived from past experience, to place but a limited reliance on the aid of voluntary subscriptions; and that any expedient, other than the taxation of real estate, or employing the public credit, does not furnish any reasonable guarantee or assurance of success.

Your committee are impressed most favorably with the plan adopted in other cities, of raising money in aid of internal improvements by taxation, and believe it to be one that is best adapted to the present circumstances and condition of the inhabitants of New-Orleans, and the adjoining parishes. They know of no other mode that recommends itself by arguments more conclusive, and believe it only necessary to recite those most prominent, to secure the command of a large majority of the population of Louisiana, and the aid of its legislature, in carrying this plan into execution. The arguments which your commit-

tee will briefly submit, are: That a tax on real estate is a selection of the legitimate object of taxation for the purposes of internal improvement; that the taxation is equal in its operations on all citizens who are able to contribute; that its execution does not diminish the value of the property of the citizen, but according to all received experience, contributes immensely to enhance its value; that it gives the tax-payer a common interest in the proposed improvement; that it invites a vigilant and active interest on the part of the entire property community in the success and progress of the undertaking; that it does not subject it to the invidious charge of monopoly—as there can be no monopoly where all participate equally; that it does away with a system of loans and credits, always fruitful of mischief, and alike detrimental to the public interests; that the policy of the plan is that of one entire cash system—and of necessity, one of economy—and such as will best ensure justice to all; and, finally, that it is a limitation of responsibility, public and private, conservative in its influence, and when in operation, will impart to the spirit of enterprise, life and activity, which alone can redeem Louisiana and New-Orleans from an inaction that threatens ruin to her best interests.

Your committee, therefore, respectfully recommend to this convention, to invite the councils of New-Orleans and Lafayette, and the people of the parishes of Louisiana, to memorialize the legislature to enact at their first session, a general law, providing that any parish, city or town, may subscribe to any rail-road within the limits of the state of Louisiana, or each of the same, and to levy a tax on real estate, to be called the rail-road tax, to cover the amount of any subscription made by such parish, city or town; provided, however, that all taxes thus levied and collected, shall entitle the persons paying them to certificates of stock in the road subscribed to, to the extent of the tax he pays; and that no subscription shall be made, or any tax levied, without the consent of a majority of the voters of the parish, city or town.

Your committee urge upon the convention, in the most respectful but earnest manner, the necessity of prompt and energetic action, in furtherance of the questions that have engaged their deliberations. JAMES ROBB, *Chairman.*

Committee Room, April 18, 1851.

1. That the New-Orleans and Jackson Rail-road, being a work immediately public in its character, and calculated to promote the general prosperity of the state, and especially enhance the value of the entire property situated on the line of the route, and at its termini, justice requires that means for its construction be provided at the expense of all who are to share its benefits.

2. That until more mature deliberations shall have perfected a plan of organization for carrying out the entire completion of the project, it is expedient to confine the present action of this convention to the adoption of such measures as shall secure the making of the road to the state line, leaving for future consideration the expediency of consolidating the company with one to be formed for continuing the road from the state line, to Jackson, Miss., or devising other means by which the two roads can be worked in unison.

3. That in order to cover all contingencies, including the cost of locomotives, carriages, depots, &c., it is expedient that the capital of the company to be organized consist of $1,500,000.

4. That a company be immediately formed, under the general corporation law of the state, with a capital of $1,500,000, divided into shares of $100 each.

5. That a memorial be presented to the legislature of this state, praying the passage of an act providing substantially as follows, viz.:

That the several municipal councils of the city of New-Orleans, and the police juries of the respective parishes situated on the line of the road, be empowered to levy a special tax on the real estate lying within their respective limits, to be called the New-Orleans and Jackson Rail-road tax; provided that no ordinance thus passed shall be binding until approved by a majority of the legal voters of the locality, at a special election called for that purpose, and that the tax thus paid by any individual shall entitle him to an equal amount of stock in the company.

6. That the committee of ways and means be instructed by a future report, to declare the amount of subscriptions that ought in justice to be contributed by the city of New-Orleans and the parishes aforesaid, basing their report upon the official returns of the value of real estate.

7. That in the meantime, voluntary subscriptions of individuals to the company be solicited on the entire line of the route, and that committees be appointed for each parish for that purpose, with the understanding and condition, that any subscriber shall have the right of giving in the receipt for money paid by him to the company in satisfaction of any tax to be levied on him as above provided.

8. That the committee of ways and means be instructed to prepare and print a detailed report, developing the principles embraced in these resolutions, and carrying out the details of organization in conformity therewith.

The Committee on Plans and Projects presented its report, which was read by the Secretary, as follows:

Report of the Committee on Plans and Projects of the New-Orleans and Jackson Rail-road Convention.

A large majority of the committee have the honor to report:

That two general plans for the connection of New-Orleans via Jackson with the great

systems of rail-roads now under construction and projected in Mississippi, Alabama and Tennessee, have been presented.

By one plan, it is proposed to construct a continuous rail-road from New-Orleans to Jackson; by the other, a rail-road from Madisonville to Jackson, and thence to a connection with New-Orleans by steam ferry boats being used for bringing the trains of rail-road cars down the Chefuncte River, and across Lake Pontchartrain to the landing of the Pontchartrain Rail-road.

The distance from New-Orleans to Jackson, via Pontchartrain Rail-road, Lake Pontchartrain and Madisonville, is 173 miles, of which distance about 30 miles will be steam ferry. By the located line of the old Nashville Rail-road, the distance is 192 miles. By a route recently surveyed by Mr. Phelps, passing above Lake Mauripas, the distance will be about 200 miles; and by a proposed line up the river, to the vicinity of Baton Rouge, the distance from New-Orleans to Jackson will be about 213 miles.

The latter route avoids difficult swamps, expensive draw-bridges across navigable rivers, and passes through a fertile and well-improved country.

Estimating 30 miles per hour for passenger trains, on a level and straight rail-road, the time of passing over each of the routes will be as follows:

1st. By the Pontchartrain Rail-road, steam ferry and Madisonville route—8 hours, 15 minutes.

2d. By the old Nashville Rail-road—6 h. 24 m.

3d. By the line above Lake Mauripas—6 h. 40 m.—and by the route near Baton Rouge —7 h. 5 m.

The majority of the committee are of the opinion that the road via Baton Rouge may be constructed in the most substantial manner from New-Orleans to Jackson, for two million dollars, and that the shorter lines would not cost materially less. The cost of the road from the state line of Louisiana to the town of Jackson, will be the same on either route, and may be estimated separately at one million dollars.

The majority of the committee are strenuously opposed to any interruption of a continuous rail-road communication between New-Orleans and neighboring states. The time allotted to the committee will not permit a report in detail, but the majority feel well assured that, on a simple statement of the case, the convention will not hesitate in adopting an unbroken line of rail-road communication. On behalf of the majority.

G. V. Brooke, *Chairman.*

The committee then offered the following resolution for the adoption of the convention:

Resolved, That it is of the greatest importance to construct a continuous rail-road from New-Orleans to Jackson, Miss., with a view to its future extension as a northern and eastern road, in preference to any other.

A report was then handed in by the minority of the committee, which was read by the Secretary, as follows:

The minority of the committee respectfully report: That they consider the route by the way of Madisonville the most advantageous for a rail-road from New-Orleans to Jackson, Miss., and recommend it for adoption, because—

1st. It is the shortest, by many miles, according to all the admeasurements of the engineers.

2d. It is the cheapest, and the only one for constructing which sufficient funds can be immediately raised.

3d. It passes over a tract of country not liable to be overflowed by crevasses, or by storms from the lake.

4th. No obstructions from swamps, streams of water, ravines, hills, &c., are to be met with on it.

5th. Valuable timber in abundance is found along the whole of its course.

6th. It passes through public lands which will, no doubt, be granted by the United States for the construction of the road, and which in time would alone, by their sale, pay for the whole of the expenses.

7th. The State of Louisiana has granted a right of way for a rail-road through the parishes of St. Tammany and Washington, by act of March 18, 1850, page 119 of the laws.

8. Because the advantages of this route are clearly shown, and the objections thereto fully answered by the reports, surveys, and documents which accompany this report.

Alfred Hennen,
J. M. Cucullu,
Henry L. Smith.

Soon after the presentation of the report on *Plans and Routes*, a scene occurred in the convention of an exciting character, between the advocates of different sections, which resulted in the withdrawal of the friends of the Madisonville terminus. These friends have had a separate convention, whose proceedings we shall report in our next number. After the withdrawal of the delegates, the report of the majority was *unanimously* adopted, Mississippi and Alabama refusing to vote from feelings of courtesy.

We regret that our limited space excludes at present the review of the Madison proceedings, and many facts of interest in regard to the convention. These we will publish next

month, together with the remarks of Mr. Marshall, the resolutions of Judge Preston and Mr. Woodruff, and the very able, triumphant, and, in many respects, most eloquent speech of James Robb, Esq., who, by this single effort, has placed himself very far in the lead of the citizens of New-Orleans. From his position, his zeal and his talents, the community have much to expect.

GALLERY OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

CHARLES LE BARON, OF MOBILE, MERCHANT.

WITH A PORTRAIT.*

No. 6.

IN taking from Mobile one of the subjects for our series of men distinguished at the South for their practical industry and enterprise, whether in commerce, manufactures, or general progress, it would have been difficult to select a more modest, unassuming, and altogether meritorious gentleman, than CHARLES LE BARON. We shall begin with him, and may hereafter add others to the list from that city.

We have not the facts for an elaborate biography of Mr. Le Baron, which in truth might be out of place, in speaking of a private merchant-citizen, but those within our knowledge will be freely given.

He was born in the year 1804, in the city of New-Orleans, of French and American extraction; but his parents removed soon afterwards to Pensacola, Florida, from which place he returned to the city at ten years of age, and remained until his eighteenth, prosecuting his education at the Orleans College.

In 1827, Mr. Le Baron having married, and removed to Tampa Bay, acted in the capacity of sutler to the United States army, under the appointment of General Brooke; but the Creek Indian disturbances in Georgia, broke up, in great part, the post.

In 1831, he returned to Pensacola, and engaged in mercantile business, giving, in connection with his partner, a strong and energetic support to the rail-road at that time projected to Columbus, but which was afterwards abandoned. No enterprise could have been more important to Pensacola. He was promoted to the post of quarter-master-general of militia in 1837, and for prompt obedience, appointed by Gov. Call to his staff, with the rank of colonel. When in the quarter-master's department, he supplied the returning volunteers with stores, medical attention, quarters, &c., and his accounts were always settled to the satisfaction of the Department at Washington.

In 1840, Mr. Le Baron was elected mayor of Pensacola, but removed the next year to Mobile, where he has resided ever since, in the pursuits of commerce, rearing a large family, and maintaining a prosperous business. His transactions are chiefly with Spain and Cuba, and he was for some time Mexican Consul, though at present, Vice-Consul for Portugal.

Mr. Le Baron is identified heart and soul with his adopted city of Mobile and her prosperity, and has given the most unmistakable evidences of it in his early and earnest advocacy of the *Mobile and Ohio Rail-road*, a work which must elevate that city to high commercial rank. It was in the service of this enterprise that we first met him, on our way to the great rail-road convention at Memphis, in 1849, and we well remember his active and faithful services. He is now a director of the road, and president of an insurance company.

In the last letter we had the pleasure of receiving from Mr. Le Baron, he concluded: "I have determined to leave politics and politicians alone, and devote myself entirely to business pursuits, and to the development in every way of the resources of our Southern country, so that we may command a proper degree of respect at home and abroad."

* We have already published, with portraits, Charles T. James; J. G. Winter, of Geo.; Daniel Pratt, Alabama; Wm. Gregg and H. W. Conner, of Charleston, and shall be indebted to friends throughout all the South and West for furnishing us the address of their most enterprising and leading practical citizens, so that the monthly series for our biography, etc. may be kept up, from every point.—EDITOR.

EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

1.—PARISH OF JACKSON, LOUISIANA.

Having issued circulars to every parish in the state, entreating for information, it pains us to say, we have only received three or four responses. Why is it, gentlemen of the state, that you will not co-operate with us in preserving the records of its history and its progress? We have already published "Assumption," and now publish *Jackson*, offering our thanks to their authors for their kind services. Can we not rely upon receiving similar letters from every parish in the state, and will not the press also help us? We have received a most elaborate and valuable paper upon *Concordia*, from the pen of Dr. A. R. Kilpatrick, which abounds in information upon a hundred subjects relating to the woods, the fields, the waters, the climate, and the population, of Louisiana. We shall publish it in our next, and all similar papers from the parish, and ultimately incorporate them all in a work we are now engaged in preparing for the Bureau of Statistics of the state of Louisiana. Let every one of our friends see that his parish is represented.

1. Vernon is the parish seat of public justice, and is located near the centre of the parish, and is about 30 miles west of Monroe. Trenton, which is about two miles above Monroe, on the west side of the Washita River, is our principal shipping point.

2. This parish was, by an act of the legislature, in 1845, carved out of Ouachita, Claiborne and Union Parishes.

3. The first white settlement, on what is now within the territory of this parish, was made by James McKerley and family, about the year 1810. He came here from Tennessee.

4. The first white person buried within the present jurisdiction of this parish, was a Mr. Jyburn, about the year 1812.

5. The country had been formerly occupied by a part of the Choctaw tribe of Indians, and a place on the eastern boundary of the parish still retains the name of Indian Village; at which, in former days, did live a number of Indian families, which were protected by about one hundred warriors.

6. Our parish has neither mountains nor any considerable hills, nevertheless it is sufficiently undulating to drain, and has but little marsh land, swamps or ponds. The water-courses are all small, but most of them are constant running streams. The soil of the country is generally quite sandy, still there are some bodies of red land, containing each a few hundred acres. The timber of the country is very tall, and in some places large, and grows thick in all places; the varieties are pine, oak, hickory, dogwood; gums of all sorts; red cherry, maple, ash, ironwood, mulberry, chincapin, &c., &c., all growing together in a manner peculiar to the country. The land has a soil of good depth, based upon a fine red clay, and is quite clear of stone. The water is plentiful, and of good quality. Springs are found in some places, and wells may be had conveniently from 30 to 35 feet depth. The undergrowth of the forest is commonly a hazlenut thicket. These thickets abound with deer and wild turkeys, wild cats, wolves and foxes, and in a few places bears may still be found. The usual varieties of birds and reptiles inhabit the country. The only strange variety worth remark is the White Partridge, which, perhaps, are too few to be erected into a different genera.

7. The best lands of this parish were taken upon speculation, and many of the plantations which have been cleared are upon second rate lands, because settlers could obtain them upon pre-emption, and only pay government price; therefore the agricultural resources of the parish are not as yet developed.

8. Horses and mules, in considerable numbers, are brought to Arkansas and Missouri annually. Meat, flour, and family supplies of groceries, are obtained from New-Orleans.

9. This parish is generally healthy, and diseases usually are of a mild character, and readily yield to suitable treatment. The whole number of our population, according to the late census, is 5,650; of which 3,407 are white, and 2,243 are colored people. The population is rapidly increasing by recruits from the neighboring states.

10. Public Schools are established in every ward or school district, for the education of children, and, I suppose, may be considered in a healthy condition. The prevailing denominations of Christians are Baptists and Methodists, who are exerting a good influence upon the general state of society.

11. In our village we have a Temperance Hall and a Masonic Hall, and the parish taxes are to be this year applied to building a Court House and Parish Offices. There are four physicians and four lawyers, besides others resident within the parish. The number of suits decided at our last circuit or district court was about thirty.

12. Since the organization of this parish one individual has been sent to the penitentiary, and three others hanged; all of the three hanged were negroes, and were condemned for separate offences.

With due respect I remain your friend,

R. MALONE STELL, M. D.

2.—BAKER'S IMPROVED FURNACE.

This improvement (see our advertisement pages) consists of the introduction between the fire-bed and the end of the boiler, of a series of curved bridge walls, which are supported on arches, and form a number of semi-elliptical chambers. These walls are built of brick, and may be constructed by any ordinary plantation mason; they are carried to within three inches of the boiler, and follow its periphery. By means of these walls and chambers, the heat, instead of passing rapidly and directly through to the chimney, as in ordinary furnaces, is caused to reverberate, and is concentrated in the successive chambers. Being thus forced through the narrow spaces between the boiler and the top of the wall, the intensely concentrated heat consumes the smoke and combustible gases, which ordinarily escape in large quantities unconsumed. By this means a saving in fuel is made. The principal economy is, however, produced by the retention and concentration of heat in the chambers, keeping it in contact with the boiler until its active properties are more nearly exhausted than in other forms of furnace. A great recommendation of this furnace is, its perfect simplicity and cheapness. It can be adapted to any boilers of cylindrical form, and does not require them to be disturbed. No difference is required in the manner of firing, except to do it with less frequency, or in less quantity. It is equally economical with wood or coal.

At the celebrated omnibus manufactory of Mr. J. Stephenson, in New-York city, the following result was obtained from a comparative trial of Baker's Furnace with the common form, as communicated to Messrs. Stillman, Allen & Co., in a letter from that gentleman, dated March 5th, 1851: "With Baker's Furnace, during six days, in which the coal was carefully weighed, the consumption was 10,254 lbs. The furnace was then entirely removed, and restored to the common form, and during six successive days, in which the coal was carefully weighed as before, the consumption was 13,426 lbs., without any increase in the production of steam—showing a result of 25 per cent. in favor of Baker's Furnace." Messrs. D. F. Tieman & Son, under date of March 14th, 1851, state, that in their chemical establishment, a saving of from 25 to 30 per cent. in consumption of fuel has been effected by the furnace. Among other testimonials of its success in Louisiana, is the following extract from a letter bearing date March 31st, 1851, from one of the largest and best known planters in the state, who is now daily using it in his refinery: "I am still exceedingly pleased with my boilers as set on Baker's plan. My engineer and firemen say that we have never had a furnace which took so little wood or made steam so easy."

3.—BOOKS FROM LEA & BLANCHARD.

1.—*Turkey and its Destiny.*—By Charles McFarlane, Esq. 2 volumes. Lea and Blanchard, 1850.

We published an elaborate article on Turkey in our Review for March, and in the course of it took occasion to speak very frequently of the work of McFarlane, which is the latest and best authority we have upon that country. The author visited it in 1847 and 1848, and has also published an earlier work, entitled "Constantinople in 1828." When Dr. Lawrence Smith was in this city last winter, on his return from the Turkish Empire, he expressed some vague intention of preparing a volume upon the same subject from his extensive notes.

2.—*The Races of Men:*—A Fragment.—By Robert Knox, M. D. We have stated on several occasions, how important we regarded the philanthropist's, statesman's, and political economist's researches into the nature and character of the races of *men*, and it would afford us much pleasure to analyze Dr. Knox's work, did time and space now admit. We can only give the titles of his chapters, as a good index of the field he has embraced. Dr. Knox considers that in the history of human affairs, too much stress cannot be laid upon RACE. "Race is everything; literature, science, art, in a word, civilization depend on it." He says again:

"As the origin of these races is lost in the past, I trace them from the present towards the past; from the partially known to the totally unknown. Well meaning persons dread the question of race; they wish it left where Pritchard did, that is, where Hippocrates left it. But this cannot be. The human mind is free to think, if not on the Rhine or on the Thames, at least on the Ohio and the Missouri."

The work embraces the substance of a series of lectures delivered in London. Subject:—History of Saxon, or Scandinavian races; Physiological Laws of Life; the Gipseys, Coptics, Jews, Phœnicians, monumental records; the Dark Races of Men: the Celts, Germans, Slavons, Sarmatians: England and her Colonies: Jewish Chronology. Of the Negro, he says: "With one thousand white men, all the blacks of St. Domingo could be defeated." "Can the black races become civilized? I should say not!" P. 162.

3.—*Physical Geography.*—By Mary Somerville, author of the "Physical Sciences," etc. Second American, from new London edition, with additions and a glossary.

Mary Somerville is a name high in the ranks of science, and her resources appear to have been exhausted upon this volume, which embraces an extensive area of knowledge relating to the earth and man. She has been aided by the views in *Cosmos*, and intended a physical atlas, but was deterred by the abridged edition of Keith Johnson's splendid work issuing from the press. If this book is to be placed into the hands of Southern youth, as well as scholars, we recommend in a new edition, that those parts of the 33d chapter be omitted, which are so warm for *abolition*, and so bitter upon the institutions of the South. For example, "*Slavery*, that stain on the human race, which corrupts the master as much as the slave."—P. 456. "The northern (American) states have nobly declared every man free who sets his foot on their territory."—P. 458. We ought to add, and "*nobly*" resisted the fugitive slave laws!

4.—*Hints to Sportsmen.*—Notes on Shooting—habits of birds—the dog, the gun, field and the kitchen. By E. J. Lewis, M.D.

These are all very interesting topics, and the book a very interesting and handsome one, and the very thing for southern sportsmen, who, thank God, are still numerous enough.

5.—*Memoirs of William Wirt.*—By John P. Kennedy. 2 vols. With a splendid steel portrait.

Mr. Wirt was for twelve years Attorney General of the United States, and his reputation for eloquence and brilliant forensic talent is co-extensive with the nation. His connection with the great Burr case is a matter of deeply interesting history. His papers, entitled the "British Spy," and the "Life of Patrick Henry," have been as much read as any works of the age. The published letters of Mr. Wirt in these volumes are among the most attractive parts. The editor says: "I like to present to the world a man greatly beloved for his social virtues, a man of letters and strong literary ambition, a public functionary, who had no relish for politics, and who was consequently but little identified with that public history which," &c. We may at another time present a sketch of Mr. Wirt, but in the meanwhile take pleasure in recommending Mr. Kennedy's labors.

4.—BOOKS FROM J. C. MORGAN.

1.—*Irish Confederates and Rebellion of 1798.* By Henry M. Field. Published in the handsomest style of Harper and Brothers, with several fine engravings of Emmett, Fitzgerald, &c., with sketches of these gentlemen, and Curran, Sampson, Tone, McNeven, etc.

Every intelligent Irishman should have the work, and all who sympathise with the struggles of that gifted, but unfortunate people. The "United Irishmen" belong to history.

2.—*Beechnut:*—A Franconia Story.—By the author of the "Rollo Books," for children, with illustrations, handsomely bound in cloth. The other volumes of the series, are *Mallville, Wallace, Mary Erskine, Mary Bell*—a pretty cabinet.

3.—*London Labor and the London Poor.*—By H. Mahew, with illustrations. Part 3. Price 12½ cents.

4.—*The Commissioner: or, De Lunatico Inquirendo*—By G. P. R. James. A novel, from Harpers.

5.—*The Maid of Canal-street, and the Bloxhams:* A Novel. By Miss Leslie. Published by Hart.

6.—*Leonard Normandale: or, The Three Brothers.* New-York: Long & Brother.

7.—*Coin Chart Manual*, with fac-similes of all coins in circulation. Price 25 cents.

Mr. Morgan has for sale a great variety of English works; all the new publications of northern houses, all Magazines, Reviews, Newspapers, etc., and a large and assorted stock of Stationery, etc., etc. 22 Exchange Place, Post Office.

5.—PAMPHLETS AND PERIODICALS.

1. *Discourse before the Graduating Class of the College of Charleston.* Feb., 1851. by Prof. J. W. Miles. Our interest in *alma mater* makes everything relating to it have a peculiar charm. Like everything from the pen of Prof. Miles, this discourse is able and instructive.

2. *The Compromise, the Constitution, and the Union.* This is from the Virginia press, and ably discusses the Compromise, which it regards as a triumph over the South. However, old Virginia herself, in her *Resolutions* the other day, appears to be satisfied, and counsels us to be so too—and, to say the truth, we are very much tired of the subject, which has ceased to be a practical one. By the way, in the pamphlet before us, this Review is quoted as "*Dr. B—w's Commercial Review.*" If the printer's devil had nothing to do with it—we may say, fervently—"This is fame!"

3. *Maury's Winds and Currents of the Sea*: from the Appendix to the Washington Astronomical Observations for 1846. Feb., 1851. This able work of Lieut. Maury is a quarto pamphlet, of over 100 pages, and has an interest for every scientific man or scholar in the nation. We noticed in our last the author's idea of the atmosphere and electricity.

4. *Conscience and the Constitution*, with remarks on the recent Speech of Daniel Webster on Slavery. By M. Stuart, late Professor at Andover, Mass. Although we could find much to controvert and oppose in the pamphlet, yet it is an able one, and in the main fair and just towards the South. The *higher law* finds no favor with the author, which has subjected him, it seems, to some northern ostracism. Of the South he says: "I cannot quit without adding a few remarks on the assumption, that every slaveholder must be denied the title of a Christian. It is not too much to say, that no man, in his sober senses, can believe or say that there are no Christians in the South who are owners of slaves. There are thousands of masters and mistresses, of exemplary Christian lives and conversation." We rejoice the Professor has discerned this.

5. *Shakspeare's Dramatic Works*. Boston edition: Phillips & Sampson. Each play separately, and price 25 cents. We have before us Nos. 35 and 36, *Lear*, and *Romeo and Juliet*.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

We regret that the review of Gayarre's late *History of Louisiana*, which we promised, is not ready. As it will be quite lengthy and thorough, we have preferred to postpone it to our next. A New-York writer says of Mr. Gayarre:

"In the luxury of his pride of description for his native state, you select the patriotic scholar. His sketch of John Law, from the birth of this schemer at Edinburg, to his death at Venice, is a striking morceau of biography. His description of Bienville's landing, is no less effective for dramatic beauty."

We spoke of the *Illustrated Mexican War*, by Kendall, of the Picayune, in our last:

"Mr. Kendall was most fortunate in securing the services of Carl Nebel, an artist already known to fame, whose knowledge of topographical engineering and long residence in Mexico, eminently qualified him for accomplishing what Kendall required to complete his magnificent design. Mr. Nebel is a German by birth, and completed his collegiate education, including engineering, at one of the German Universities—he further perfected himself in architecture and drawing in Paris and Italy. During a residence of fifteen years in Mexico, he produced a beautifully illustrated work at $100 a copy, entitled 'A Picturesque and Archæological Voyage in Mexico'—but its high price makes this book extremely rare in America. Mr. Nebel is so fortunate as to enjoy the warm personal friendship of Baron Humboldt, who, as a compliment to him, wrote the preface to his work on Mexico."

In our *February* number, page 205, we published some statistics of the production and consumption of *Sugar*, which had appeared previously in the leading journals of the country, and which we had clipped out. The figures for our own country were erroneous, and could only have been intended as a very *average approximation*. We noticed it as soon as the number appeared, and our attention was afterwards called to the subject by a writer over the signature of "*Lafourche*." We deemed it improper to reply to that letter, but published in the May number, p. 564, a correct and comprehensive table of production and supply, being assured that our readers could not be led astray by a single statement, considering what extensive and elaborate statistics we have published for five years upon *sugar*.

A biographical sketch of the late J. W. Monette, Historian of the Valley of the Mississippi, prepared by Professor Forshey, must remain over to our next, as also several very able and instructive articles; among others, one on the "Diseases and Insects peculiar to the cotton-plant."

We have received from the publishers, Murphy & Co., Baltimore, the "*Writings of Bishop of England*," in five volumes, but too late for notice this month.—From Mr. J. L. Jourdan, sole agent for Louisiana, "*Frost's Pictorial History of North America*,"—a useful and interesting work, which we will notice next month.—From Mr. Champonnier, his valuable "Sugar Statement for 1850–'51."

Those of our *advertisers* who are excluded this month, shall have a full equivalent. It is an accident which cannot occur again.

Our agents everywhere are most successful, and we are truly grateful for the wide sympathies expressed for the Review from every quarter. We have still many more improvements and additions in progress, and if our friends will ALL stand by us *through another year*, we pledge them a work not second to any in existence of the kind, and to which they shall be able to urge *no* objection.

Those indebted on old accounts, or on the new year now beginning, will remember us as early as they can. Our work contains *three times* the quantity of matter it did the first year, and is four times more expensive to us, without additional charge to subscribers.

☞ The *February* number, 1851, was sent twice by mistake to many subscribers. As we are out of this number, it would be an immense advantage to us, if we could get some of them back. Will our friends favor us with the number, if they can spare it? We also desire August, 1849, and February, 1848—or even January and March, 1851. Send by mail, and we will give the value.

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